

VOLUME XXXV

SUMMER 1957



Public Administration

CONTENTS

THE TREASURY'S ROLE IN CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING	99
By David Hubback	
TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE	111
By J. V. Greenlaw	
THE USE OF CASE STUDY IN THE BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE	125
By Miss Avice Turnbull	
REPORTING TO PARLIAMENT ON THE NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES	143
By Raymond Nottage	
DEPARTMENTAL FINANCIAL CONTROL	169
By A. S. Marre	
LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA	179
By L. P. Green	
THE UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMITTEE	185
By Dr. H. V. Wiseman	
VALUATION AND RATING IN SCOTLAND	187
By A. Currie	

JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL
INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

PRICE 8s. 6d. NET

NOTES

<i>Public Administration Clearing House</i>	192
<i>Pay of the Higher Civil Service : Advisory Committee Appointed</i>	194
<i>Institute News</i>	196

BOOK REVIEWS

<i>The Ministry of Works</i> (Sir Harold Emmerson)	Stanley Harder	198
<i>The Victoria History of Wiltshire : Vol. V</i> ..	B. Keith-Lucas	199
<i>Candidates in a Municipal Election</i> (G. W. Fenn)	Henry Maddick	200
<i>A Source Book and History of Administrative Law in Scotland</i> (Ed. M. R. McLarty, G. Campbell, H. Paton)	F. M. G. Willson	201
<i>State Intervention and Assistance in Collective Bargaining</i> (H. A. Logan)	R. C. Adams	202
<i>From School Board to Local Authority</i> (Eric Eaglesham)	John Leese	203
<i>Les Services de la Fonction Publique dans le Monde</i> (J.-J. Ribas)	T. D. Kingdom	204
<i>Local Expenditure and Exchequer Grants</i> ..	D. N. Chester	206
<i>Perspectives on Administration</i> (Dwight Waldo)	D. N. Chester	207
<i>Book Notes</i>		208
<i>Recent Government Publications</i>		211

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION is published quarterly in April, July, October and December. The subscription rate is 30/- per annum (\$5 in the United States). Single copies may be obtained, price 8/6 each (\$1.25 in the United States). It is supplied free to members of the Royal Institute of Public Administration.

Articles and Correspondence should be sent to the Hon. Editor, D. N. Chester, C.B.E., M.A., Nuffield College, Oxford.

Books for review should be sent to the Royal Institute of Public Administration, Haldane House, 76a New Cavendish Street, London, W.1.

Journal subscriptions should be sent to the Royal Institute of Public Administration.

The advertising agent is J. L. M. Stonebanks, 33 Crawford Place, London, W.1 (Paddington 2038), to whom all enquiries concerning advertising space should be sent.

192
194
196

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

198
199
200
201
202
203
204
206
207
208
211

VOLUME XXXV · SUMMER 1957

JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL INSTITUTE OF
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

THE SCOTTISH LEGAL SYSTEM

Price 12s. (9s. 6d. to R.I.P.A. Members)

This symposium, based on lectures delivered to the Edinburgh and East of Scotland Regional Group of the Royal Institute of Public Administration, gives a full and authoritative account of some aspects of the Scottish legal system.

CHILD CARE — WORKING TOGETHER

Price 4s.

The report of the proceedings and discussions of the conference held in Peebles on 22nd-23rd March, 1957, by the Edinburgh and East of Scotland Regional Group, has now been published by the Group.

These two publications may be ordered from :

W. M. Fraser, T.D., Hon. Secretary of the
Edinburgh and East of Scotland Regional Group,
245-247, High Street, Edinburgh, 1

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

Published quarterly by the
INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

- Articles from the most authoritative sources on a wide range of topics within the scope of Public Administration.
- Numerous leading and informative articles. Items of news on administrative activities throughout the world. Reviews of the most significant publications of current interest.
- A regular feature covering the main events in the international field of Administrative Science.
- From 1957 onwards, a completely new presentation. Three separate editions : English, French and Spanish. Merged with *Progress in Public Administration*, a Review of Technical Co-operation, published since 1953 by the Institute.

Subscription in the United Kingdom : £2 17s. 6d. (to be sent to the Royal Institute of Public Administration, 76A New Cavendish Street, London, W.1).

The Treasury's Rôle in Civil Service Training

By DAVID HUBBACK

Until recently Director of Training and Education in H.M. Treasury, Mr. Hubback explains the part played by his Division and comments on some recent developments in Civil Service Training.

IT is now over thirteen years since the Assheton Committee reported, but their Report has stood the test of time remarkably well. Nearly all the main recommendations of the Committee have been adopted and form the basis of Civil Service training today. There have naturally been many other developments since the war, but the main structure is built on the foundations laid by the Committee. In this article I shall not try to trace in detail the history of Civil Service training since 1944. In brief, this has been mainly a matter of rapid expansion after the war, followed by some retrenchment at the beginning of 1952, succeeded in turn by a number of new developments. I shall, rather, attempt to give a picture of Civil Service training today as seen from the Treasury, paying particular attention to new methods and types of training which have been undertaken in the last year or so.

While I shall concentrate on the Treasury's rôle in Civil Service training, it is important to remember that the vast bulk of training is done within Departments, most of whom have their own schemes for training new entrants and, where necessary, for giving vocational training. The really big Departments with responsibilities for large blocks of routine work also undertake the training of supervisors and managers. The figures of staff employed on training illustrate the relative scales of effort. While the Training and Education Division of the Treasury consists of 14 people of all ranks, the training staffs, at both Headquarters and in the regions, of such major Departments as Inland Revenue, Ministry of Labour and National Service, and Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance total about 140, 45 and 95, respectively.

THE TREASURY'S PART IN TRAINING

The main functions of the Training and Education Division are :

1. Central guidance and co-ordination of Departments.
2. Training of departmental instructors.
3. Central training of Administrative, Professional and Technical Classes.
4. Training for higher administration.
5. Special central courses.
6. Administration of external training and further education schemes.
7. Relations with other countries.

(1) Central Guidance and Co-ordination of Departments

Just like other Divisions in the Treasury, the Training and Education Division is responsible for advising on policy and for co-ordinating the work of

Departments. Quite rightly, there is no question of the Treasury giving orders to Departments on the extent or quality of the training they carry out. The function of the Training and Education Division is rather to provide central guidance and advice on all matters of training and to ensure the necessary degree of co-ordination between Departments' activities. To attain this end, the Division is in constant touch with Departmental Training Officers, who meet from time to time, with the Treasury Director of Training and Education in the Chair. The Division is also responsible for considering fresh proposals for training schemes submitted by Departments for financial approval of the Treasury.

Members of the Training and Education Division visit Departmental Training Centres, both in London and the Regions, from time to time, in order to keep in touch with new developments and give whatever advice they can, particularly on training methods.

Just as most Departments have a Departmental Whitley Joint Training Committee, so there is a National Whitley Council Joint Training Committee, on which the Training and Education Division is represented.

At this Committee we discuss both the administration of present training and our plans for new developments with the Staff Side who have always been eager to extend and improve training throughout the Service. But perhaps of even more value are our informal day-to-day contacts with the Staff Side which we find of the greatest help in planning new courses.

(2) *Training of Departmental Instructors*

Our most effective way of keeping in touch with training throughout the Service is by training Departmental Instructors ourselves. In recent years about 200 instructors a year have attended courses in teaching techniques at the Treasury which, for this purpose, becomes a teachers' training college in miniature. The training is given by three tutors, with occasional talks from others both inside and outside the Government Service.

There is a constant demand from Departments for the training of their instructors, since not only do new types of training require new teaching techniques, but the instructors themselves change on an average about once every three years. These instructors are almost invariably chosen (by their Departments and not by the Treasury) from those working in ordinary operational Divisions, to which they return after a tour of duty in a Departmental training centre. Naturally, Departments try to select people with an aptitude for teaching. But there is no qualifying examination or period of probation. Having seen a large number of instructors pass through the Training and Education Division, my experience is that Departments normally choose well, and that the calibre of instructors is encouragingly high. More often than not they are remarkably keen on their work and anxious to keep up with developments both inside and outside the Civil Service.

There are four main types of Instructors' Courses, lasting from three days to two weeks, designed to meet the different needs of Departments, and the different levels of those to be trained in Departments. The basic Instructors' Course, which lasts for two weeks, is for the man with no more than a few months' experience of training who is mainly concerned with the vocational and background training of junior ranks. This course is in

thre
of
help
of v
tabl
run
how
leas
effor
find
doin
pract

cann
will
and
Trea
oppo
tutor
devel
traini
in or
Treas
V
to tra
new
which
Execu
manag
While
they a
of the
techni
T
these
an acti
While
field, s
Institu
best m
in this
be ada
offices
only b
as a re
in the
used in

*For
125-142.

THE TREASURY'S ROLE IN CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING

three main parts. First we try to give instructors some idea of the theory of teaching and the psychology of learning, together with as much practical help as we can about the preparation and presentation of material, the use of visual aids including films and film strips, and the drawing up of a timetable. The Treasury tutors give demonstrations of how to lecture, how to run a discussion group, how to make the best use of a visiting speaker, and how to use rôle-playing. Thereafter, each member of the course has at least two practices in giving a lecture or running a discussion group, his efforts being criticised by the rest of the group and the Treasury tutor. We find these practice periods are the most valuable part of the course, since doing is the best way of learning to teach. Indeed, the whole course is practical rather than theoretical.

We realise that, even with the best of methods, finished instructors cannot be turned out after a two weeks' course. Departmental instructors will benefit from the fund of experience they find in their own training centre, and they are also invited to come to short Refresher Conferences at the Treasury after they have been teaching for 18 months. These provide an opportunity for the instructors to discuss their problems with the Treasury tutors and with instructors from other Departments, and to hear about new developments in training. In addition, Treasury tutors visit Departmental training centres, both in London and the Provinces, as often as possible in order to give any help and advice they can, and we have recently started a Treasury Training *News Letter*, intended mainly for Departmental Instructors.

We run other more advanced courses for instructors who are going to train first-line supervisors, managers and senior staff. An interesting new development has been the courses in the Conduct of Public Business, which are now being held in most major Departments, designed for Higher Executive and Senior Executive Officers: that is, for people in middle-grade management, with anything from 15 to 35 years' experience in the Service. While these courses are primarily concerned with management problems, they also include discussions on ways and means of raising the standards of the individual's work. We use case study as one of the main teaching techniques for these courses.*

There is a strong family likeness in the training techniques taught on these different courses. As far as possible, the members of the course play an active part in the proceedings. There is little, or no, straight lecturing. While we try to keep in close touch with the many bodies working in this field, such as the National Institute of Industrial Psychology and the British Institute of Management, we have had, to a large extent, to work out the best method suited for the Civil Service. Much of the present outside work in this field has been done in industrial firms and the results cannot readily be adapted to Civil Service needs. Even where studies of big commercial offices have been made, we cannot simply copy what others have done, if only because of the different organisation required in a Government office as a result of its Ministerial head being responsible to Parliament. While, in the result, the methods we have adopted are not very different from those used in the more progressive firms in this country and the United States,

*For details of our use of case studies see Miss A. V. Turnbull's article at pages 125-142.

we would welcome more attention being paid by the learned institutions to the administrative problems of large offices. We realise that we still have a lot to learn about teaching methods, with which we are continuing to experiment to find the best way of undertaking new types of training.

Now that training is carried on over such a broad front in Departments, instructors find themselves faced with audiences greatly differing in age, from young new entrants to experienced middle- and senior-grade officers of considerable standing. As many of the latter might well resent going back to school, there is little straight lecturing. Quite apart from this, much of public administration can best be taught in terms of practical experience. While there is undoubtedly still a place for lectures, especially when it is a matter of teaching new entrants who have to learn the tools of their trade, we have found that, for the experienced, even the best lecture on the principles of management, organisation or public administration is largely a waste of time. But to discuss current problems in small groups, to reproduce typical situations through rôle-playing, films or film strips, or to analyse examples of good and bad administration (as illustrated in case studies), can be much more rewarding. Precisely how rewarding it is impossible to say since so much of our training is by way of changing attitudes rather than teaching skills. In our experience, however, there is no doubt that maximum participation by members of the course gives the best results. Such participation also leads to a high degree of enthusiasm in training, much to the surprise of the newcomer whose heart may sink when he is told he is going on a training course. We try to discount some of this enthusiasm by asking for frank criticism of each course, not only at the last session, but also, on occasion, several months later when the group has dispersed to their Departments and have to face their individual problems once more.

(3) *Central Training of Administrative, Professional and Technical Classes*

We have, perhaps, been more adventurous in our training of Departmental Instructors than in the central courses we run for Administrators and other senior Civil Servants, such as scientists and engineers. While the Assheton Committee recommended a two or three months' course of initial training for Assistant Principals, we give no more than three weeks. Nor can we claim that the Training and Education Division has become, as suggested by the Assheton Committee, "a clearing house of ideas for Civil Service administrators and a repository of schemes, successful and unsuccessful, which have been tried out in practice." On the other hand we have done rather more than the Assheton Committee proposed in other respects.

Training of Assistant Principals. As the Assistant Principal's grade is essentially a training grade, training continues for the whole of the five or six years the average man spends in this grade. After an initial training course in his Department, the new Assistant Principal will be posted to a Division where, right from the start, he is given some responsibility. By far the most important part of his training will be gained by moving from Division to Division at intervals of 6 to 18 months, ending up, if he has any luck, as a Private Secretary to a Minister or the Permanent Head of his Department.

If he belongs to a Ministry with a regional or local network, he is likely to have spent about six months working in a local office; thus, he will have seen Government from the circumference as well as at the centre. But, in addition to training by variety of experience coupled with responsibility, the Assistant Principal will attend the three weeks' central course at the Treasury. He may also go on special short courses organised by his Department and he will have the chance of studying some administrative problem during a short visit to another country in Western Europe.

The Treasury course consists of 16 to 18 Assistant Principals drawn from different Ministries, together with one or two young foreign civil servants, generally from Western Europe, invited to widen the scope of discussion. The object of this intensive course is to broaden the Assistant Principal's understanding of the machinery of government and of the organisation of the Civil Service.

Although, as is our normal custom, the course is conducted in an informal atmosphere with the members sitting in armchairs, on this occasion we find more scope for straight lectures; but with ample time left for discussion. This is because we are trying to teach certain facts about Government which the new entrant cannot be expected to know. On most of our other courses people train themselves through pooling experience, but the Assistant Principals have little experience on which to draw. Through lectures, reading and exercises they are expected to acquire a grasp of the main elements of such subjects as the relation between central and local government, the position of the law courts and administrative tribunals, financial control and the structure of the Civil Service. We try to keep the level of speakers high. Most come from within Whitehall, and include Ministers as well as senior civil servants. We usually include an Opposition Member of Parliament and some outside experts, such as a Town Clerk or a lawyer. At present the course includes visits to the Houses of Parliament, a County or County Borough Council, and a Government Research Establishment.

The Assistant Principals work in syndicates to discuss topical problems, the solutions of which need a good deal of thought and reading. Each Assistant Principal is either Chairman or Vice-Chairman of a syndicate for each subject and has to present a report.

We are sometimes criticised on the score that even the brightest of young men and women straight from the universities cannot be expected to learn what they ought to know about administration through attending a course lasting only three weeks. We would not begin to dispute this, but then the primary purpose of the course is rather different. It is to give an Assistant Principal his main bearings in a variety of subjects, so that, if he ever has to tackle problems connected with any one of them, he will at least have some idea where to begin. We hope, also, that these courses give the new entrant Assistant Principal the sense of belonging to a unified Civil Service rather than being just a member of an individual Department. It is quite true that we do very little compared with the year spent on largely academic studies at the Ecole Nationale d'Administration by the new entrants to the French Civil Service in the second year of their two-and-a-half-year course. As against this, the British Assistant Principal usually has far more training within his Department than his French opposite number.

There are many who argue that we ought to follow the example of the Ecole Nationale d'Administration, in which I would be the first to agree that there is a lot to admire. I was, for instance, much impressed, on a recent visit, by the two months' attachment to industry arranged for each young French civil servant passing through the Ecole Nationale d'Administration. But I am doubtful about the need for as much as a whole year spent on acquiring background knowledge. In this country, after continuous education from the age of 5 to 22, followed most probably by two years' National Service, the newly appointed Assistant Principal wants to get to grips with a responsible job. Moreover, while the Ecole Nationale d'Administration course is producing good results in France, it is not necessarily the best for us with our different educational and Civil Service systems. We give responsibility earlier than the French, and I would be sorry to see this altered. On the other hand, we should make it as easy as possible for our Assistant Principals to pick up for themselves the background knowledge they need. This is not just a matter of libraries and being aware of what the universities and other learned bodies have to offer. Sometimes more positive help is needed. For instance, the Foreign Office, last autumn, ran a course of 24 lectures on elementary economics, mainly for the benefit of recent entrants to the Foreign Service who expected to be posted abroad shortly: but the lectures were also attended by Assistant Principals from some of the Economic Departments. There may be scope for more of this type of in-service background training.

(4) *Training for Higher Administration*

The Assheton Committee, having turned down the idea of a special Civil Service staff college, recommended that training for higher administration should be given right outside the Civil Service by attachments to industry or Local Authorities, by sabbatical leave to be spent at universities, and by travel abroad. While there have been few attachments to industry and Local Authorities so far, the proposals for sabbatical leave and travel abroad have been put into effect on quite an extensive scale. In any one year, about 50 civil servants of the rank of Assistant Secretary and Principal (and equivalent ranks in the Executive, Professional, Technical and Scientific classes) have spells of sabbatical leave ranging from 3 to 12 months. Of these 50 civil servants, some 18 attend the Administrative Staff College at Henley; 12 go to the Imperial Defence College; 4 to the Joint Services Staff College; and 2 to the N.A.T.O. Defence College in Paris. In addition, some universities have been generous in awarding research fellowships to civil servants. In most years, for instance, Nuffield College appoints a civil servant to a Gwilym Gibbon Fellowship, and Manchester University to a Simon Fellowship; in both cases to study some aspect of public administration. These fellowships generally last a year. The London School of Economics has, on occasion, awarded a Webb Fellowship to a civil servant for a longer period.

Perhaps most attractive of all are the Commonwealth and Nuffield Travelling Fellowships. The Commonwealth Fund offer three fellowships for administrators and two for scientists each year for visits to the United

THE TREASURY'S ROLE IN CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING

States. The Nuffield Foundation send an administrator and one scientist abroad, usually to Commonwealth countries. The main purpose of both fellowships is to enable the civil servant to undertake advanced study of some administrative problem in the country of his choice.

For young scientists there are the King George VI Fellowships for study in the United States, while others go to some university of their choice abroad to study some special subject. While these more specialised studies at first sight may have little to do with training for higher administration, it can be argued that experience of some overseas research laboratory may well help a man when he becomes senior enough to play a leading part in administering a Government Research Establishment at home.

Apart from sabbatical leave of one kind and another, we have gone beyond the Assheton Committee proposals in arranging conferences at both Assistant Secretary and Principal level mainly for the discussion of management and organisation problems.

For the past few years we have run residential conferences at a country house or a Cambridge college, lasting eight days and attended by about 20 senior scientists, engineers, architects and administrators of Assistant Secretary and equivalent rank. At first we kept the different groups separate, but recently we have tended to mix them up more, so as to get the maximum cross-fertilisation. Probably the scientists and engineers benefit rather more from these conferences than the Assistant Secretaries, since they come to them at a time when they have ceased being primarily research workers at the bench, or mainly engaged in technical problems, and are taking on responsibility for organising research work and for controlling blocks of staff. So, at present, scientists and engineers are getting two-thirds of the places on the three conferences we run every year. Of these three conferences at least one each is devoted to the special problems of scientists and administrators respectively. As for the Assistant Principals' Course, we usually invite an overseas visitor from the United States, the Commonwealth or Western Europe.

A description of methods used was given by Mr. S. A. Bailey in the Winter, 1955, issue of *Public Administration*. Here perhaps it will suffice to say that the subjects discussed by both types of conference are about equally divided between management and organisational problems.

Typical subjects in recent Scientists' Conferences include "The Place of Science and Technology in the Machinery of Government"; "The Organisation and Purpose of a Government Research Establishment"; "The Function of Headquarters in Relation to Outstations," and "Scientific Method in the Formulation of Economic Policy." Typical subjects for the Assistant Secretaries' Conferences have been "Administrative Tribunals," "The Place of the Economist in Administration," "Ministerial Responsibility," and "The Federal Service of the U.S.A." Both conferences discuss such management problems as recruitment, training and promotion.

Speakers at these conferences are usually senior civil servants or experts from the universities or industry. While we have been fortunate in getting good speakers, who undoubtedly add a great deal to the value of these conferences, it might be possible to run them without any outside speakers at all. The members of the conferences bring a sufficient wealth of experience

to provide material for worth-while discussion throughout the week.

We have recently started a new series of one-week courses for Principals and equivalent Executive, and Scientific and Technical Grades. These are being run on similar lines to the Conferences for Assistant Secretaries although, unfortunately, they cannot be residential and are, therefore, unlikely to make the same impact. However, they should play a useful part in training for higher administration through allowing about 80 people a year, mostly in their late thirties, to see their work in better perspective by discussing common management and organisational problems with their fellows from other parts of the Civil Service. On our present scale of activities it is unlikely that any one man, in the course of his career, will attend both the Principals' and the Assistant Secretaries' Conferences and have a spell of sabbatical leave. But some will at least have a chance of getting away from their desks on two out of three occasions.

(5) *Special Central Courses*

Conferences and Courses for Administrative and other higher civil servants are not by any means the only central courses run by the Treasury. For instance, the Organisation and Methods Division run five-week courses for those who are going to specialise in this type of work in the Departments. There are shorter courses for Departmental and Regional Training Officers and for Welfare Officers. We also give three-day courses for people who have to give occasional talks in their Departments and want help in the art of speaking and the best way of presenting material.

Even more important is the rôle the Training and Education Division plays in the general control of typing training and testing. Typing training takes place in Departmental Training Schools, of which there are 14 in London and 16 outside London, the numbers passing through such schools amounting to over 10,000 a year. The Treasury is responsible for the test papers used in these schools. Moreover, following the recommendation of the Assheton Committee, we run central courses on a fairly large scale for those in charge of typing in Departments, for Personal Assistants to senior civil servants, and for those learning how to use dictating machinery. Thus, last year 34 Controllers of Typists, 134 Typing Pool Supervisors and 200 dictating machine typists attended courses at the Treasury together with 81 Personal Assistants.

(6) *External Training and Further Education*

Some Departments make extensive use of the technical colleges and universities for vocational training and technical education, giving time off from the office where necessary and paying fees in full.

Further Education, which is now administered by the Civil Service Council for Further Education, a National Whitley body, has developed greatly since the war. All young civil servants up to the age of 18 have a day off a week to pursue studies of their choice at day continuation schools. It is, of course, not always possible to find suitable classes for all young civil servants, as the Service is scattered throughout the country (two-thirds of the Civil Service is stationed outside London). There is a tendency for

THE TREASURY'S ROLE IN CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING

some young civil servants to give up their classes before the age of 18; but, even so, the numbers attending classes are impressive. At present they total 80 per cent. of those under 18.

For those over the age of 18, the Civil Service Council for Further Education has been active throughout the country in bringing to the notice of all civil servants the varied opportunities which exist in local evening colleges and technical institutes. The Council interpret "further education" in the broadest sense, including crafts, fine art, ordinary academic subjects and modern studies.

The Assheton Committee recommended that the Government should encourage non-vocational further education in every way, short of paying fees. This, as explained above, the Civil Service Council for Further Education already do for cultural and practical subjects of all kinds. Recently, however, it has been decided that financial help may be given to civil servants attending external courses in subjects which would afford a better understanding of the problems and activities of the Department to which they belong or of the public service generally. Departments may, at their discretion, give greater encouragement than they have been able to in the past, to members of their staff who wish to follow, in their own time, worth-while external courses in such subjects as public administration, economics, law and other social sciences. This is a recent development and it is, as yet, too early to judge how great the demand in the Civil Service for such studies is going to be. Much will depend on what the universities and technical colleges have to offer. In the past the universities in this country have always held, quite rightly, that it is not their job to train civil servants, although they have an important part to play in Civil Service education. The universities have a lot to offer in the study of law and economics and the older disciplines. But public administration and some of the other social sciences as studied in the universities sometimes seem rather remote from the everyday problems of civil servants who are apt, perhaps too hastily, to question the value of the universities' teaching. If Whitehall has been a little sceptical from its mundane point of view about what the universities have to offer, many teachers of public administration at the universities would be the first to agree that their subject is still in its infancy as an academic study. The ordinary administrator is apt to think (and some university lecturers would agree) that public administration can only be studied fruitfully by those who have practical experience. But many other Governments, for instance in France, Holland and the United States, look to their universities for considerable help in training civil servants. Perhaps we could learn from their experience.

We have recently gone some way to bridge the gap between Whitehall and the universities by making it possible for a few university lecturers in public administration to work for periods of about two years as Principals in some Government Departments. Provided the universities can spare them, the Treasury has agreed to try and arrange two or three appointments a year. This is a new scheme and we do not yet know what the response will be. But if it is a success the scheme should be of mutual benefit to both the universities and Whitehall, just as both benefit from the fellowships which some universities award to civil servants.

(7) Relations with Other Countries

I have already mentioned how we like having overseas civil servants as members of Treasury Administrative Courses and how some of our own people go abroad either for short periods or for sabbatical leave lasting as much as twelve months, to study some administrative problem. But this is only one side of the growing international study of public administration in which we play a part. Here the traffic is mostly inwards. Every year several hundreds of civil servants from most countries this side of the Iron Curtain come to the United Kingdom to study our methods of administration. Some are financed by United Nations Technical Assistance, others by the Colombo Plan, and others again by their own Governments. Many of these visitors are helped to find what they want by the British Council, which arranges individual programmes tailored to meet special needs. The British Council has also run courses on such subjects as Taxation and the Administrative Problems of Under-developed Countries. But those civil servants who are primarily concerned with central government (and there have been over 100 in the last 18 months) are apt to find their way to the Treasury where we do our best to give them what they want, usually by sending them to experts in the various Departments.

An important recent development has been the work of the Public Administration Committee of Western European Union, both in arranging exchanges of civil servants between member countries and in organising courses attended by up to six civil servants of Assistant Secretary rank from each of the member countries. In recent years successful courses have been held in Holland on "The Inter-action of the State and Society," in France on "The Rôle of Administrative and Technical Officials in Planning and Execution," and in the United Kingdom on "The Civil Servant and the Protection of the Citizen." This year there is to be a course in Italy on "The adaptation of traditional forms of Government to carry out a major development programme." While the themes for these courses are very general, discussions are brought down to earth by concentrating on practical problems. Thus last year's course in the United Kingdom was divided into three groups of study, namely, "Administration and Control of the Police"; "Safety, Health and Welfare in Factories"; and "Social Insurance and Assistance," members of each group being concerned with these matters in their own countries. In the 2½ weeks that these courses last there can be no question of any profound study: their chief value lies in the stimulus these courses give to those attending them through discussion of everyday problems with their opposite numbers from other countries. Even if a civil servant does not find anything abroad which he would wish to see transferred to his own country, he should get some useful ideas about how he might do his own job better.

CONCLUSIONS

I am afraid that this sketch of the Treasury's activities in training may appear complacent and also give the impression that the Treasury's part in training is more important than that of Departments. But it would be wrong to draw these conclusions. We are painfully aware that there are lots of things

THE TREASURY'S ROLE IN CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING

that we ought to be doing better. As for Departments, it is they who do at least 95 per cent. of the training done in the Civil Service and many of the methods we recommend are based on the experience of Departments.

Looking ahead, I would like to see more done, both in training for higher administration, for which the Treasury is responsible, and in training the Executive and Departmental Classes, for which Departments are responsible.

Developing the Assheton Committee's recommendation that the administrator ought to get right away from his desk from time to time, we might well arrange for the young civil servant to spend some time in industry or with Local Authorities. I would like to see the senior man having more chance than at present of sabbatical leave, spent either in a university at home or in travel abroad. Whether this is practicable or not in the fairly near future, it seems clear that we should look more and more to the universities for help and inspiration.

As for the Executive Class, a strong case can be made out that more training is needed if we are to make the best use of the talent we recruit. It will, however, be primarily for Departments to work out the best form of training to meet their individual needs.

Perhaps a new Assheton Committee should be appointed to appraise what has been done since the war and to propose ways of improving our present training methods. It may well be that the Civil Service needs better rather than more training. Quite considerable sums of money are spent every year on training, but are we really getting value for money? Anyone with any responsibility for training nowadays is bound to be looking for ways and means of finding out whether his activities are worth while. Do our training courses make any lasting impact and, if so, do they make the right impact? The Post Office, in conjunction with the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, has done some work on this problem, but I would like to see a lot more effort devoted to assessing the results of training, particularly training of middle and senior grades where it is a question of changing attitudes rather than inculcating knowledge or skills. The Civil Service has perhaps adopted a rather more cautious attitude to training than obtains in some of the biggest industrial concerns where training has been looked upon as a panacea in recent years. Were it possible to do more to assess the results of training, we should feel more confident in going further and faster. While from the nature of the problem we shall probably never get conclusive answers, here again we must look to the universities and learned institutions to devise the methods for assessing training which we at present lack.

THE NEW WHITEHALL SERIES

This Series, which is edited on behalf of the Royal Institute of Public Administration by Sir Robert Fraser, O.B.E., provides authoritative and readable descriptions of the work and organisation of major Departments.

The Ministry of Works by SIR HAROLD EMMERSON 15s. (11/6)

This book provides the first complete description of the Ministry, whose tasks range from the provision of accommodation and furniture for many government departments both at home and abroad, to the preservation of ancient monuments and the organisation of state ceremonies. Sir Harold traces the growth of the department and outlines its activities and organisation.

The Colonial Office by SIR CHARLES JEFFRIES 15s. (11/6)

Sir Charles Jeffries outlines the work and tradition of the Colonial Office and surveys the responsibilities of the Secretary of State. After a survey of the various territories with which the Office is concerned, he shows how it has expanded and adapted its organisation to meet changing demands, and then describes the main aspects of its work today.

The Foreign Office by LORD STRANG 18s. (13/6)

This is the first comprehensive description of the Foreign Office and the Foreign Service since the 1943 Reforms. It paints a vivid picture of life and work at the Foreign Office, at embassies and consulates, and at international organisations. In addition it contains up-to-date information about organisation and staffing.

The Home Office by SIR FRANK NEWSAM 15s. (11/6)

The reader will find in this book a fascinating account of the many and varied functions which constitute the work of the oldest Department of State. The intimate concern of the Home Office with personal freedom and with many other features of the British way of life enhances the book's interest.

*The prices in brackets are those available to
R.I.P.A. members ordering direct from the Institute.*

GEORGE ALLEN AND UNWIN LTD
40 MUSEUM STREET, LONDON, W.C.1

Training and Education in the Post Office

By J. V. GREENLAW

Mr. Greenlaw is an Assistant Secretary in the Post Office and is in charge of the Training and Welfare Branch of the Personnel Department at Headquarters.

THE Post Office is primarily an industry, but it is also unmistakably a Government Department. It has to consider not only the public, as its customers and shareholders, but also Parliament, Ministers, and the Treasury. Its policy necessarily contains a good deal of compromise, and although in some fields the Post Office is more than commonly progressive, it is fundamentally a stable organisation with objectives that most people understand and accept. Major changes in Post Office policy and structure are in fact infrequent, and it is not difficult to pick out the main characteristics that underlie and determine the shape of its system of training and education.

THE GENERAL SHAPE

The most notable event since the purchase of the National Telephone Company was the regionalisation that followed the report of the Bridgeman Committee in 1932. This cut across the previously sharp divisions between the engineering hierarchy and the remainder of the Post Office organisation, and it put the responsibility for nine-tenths of the staff on ten Regional Directors and the Head Postmasters and Telephone Managers under their control. These Directors, together with the Directors of the Savings Department and the External Telecommunications Executive, are unmistakably responsible in line command for the operation of Post Office services; the staff functions of administration, common services, operational control and technical direction remain with Headquarter branches and departments. The familiar dilemma of staff interference with line functions is particularly troublesome under the stress of Parliamentary control, Ministerial responsibility, and Treasury restraint, but it is in general true, in fact as in theory, that the field Directors can make full use of their extensive devolved powers in the way recommended in the Fleck Report for the coal industry.

The second most important factor in the pattern of Post Office training is the relations between official and staff sides. The Post Office is unique among Government Departments in having two Departmental Whitley Councils, one for the technical staff in the Engineering, Factories and Supplies Departments (some 85,000) and the other for the remainder of the staff (265,000). I doubt whether it would be too strong to say that it is unique among large organisations in the extent, harmony, and creativeness of its staff negotiations, both through Whitley channels and in direct contact with trades unions.

The third dominant factor is the quantity of training that has to be done in an industry with more than 350,000 staff, and an annual turnover of over 10,000 in one grade alone; in 1956 this came to an estimated time-expenditure of nearly 25 million trainee-hours. The bulk of this is the

inescapable training of new entrants to the main grades, and is mostly given in Regional schools and offices. But there are many varieties and levels of training, making the arrangements complex as well as extensive, and I can hardly hope to provide more than a broad outline here.

DEVELOPMENT

The history of organised training in the Post Office reaches back into Victorian times. The First World War increased the need, bringing with it instability of staff and rapid changes in process. In 1924, for example, a school was set up to teach the new skills of automatic telephony, and a rapid expansion of technical training followed, while in 1931 the training centre for clerks at Post Office counters did pioneer work in the development of visual aids, class participation, and a highly practical form of rôle-playing at a fully equipped dummy counter.

During the Second World War the need for training became more generally recognised in this country, and public interest led to the setting up of the Assheton Committee, referred to by Mr. Hubback. This Committee dealt explicitly with general questions of training within the Home Civil Service, and referred to a separate study of grades peculiar to the Post Office (para. 4). This study was made by a Committee containing representatives of the official side and both staff sides: it published three reports, between 1944 and 1946. It recorded its approval of the existing training arrangements, but spoke of the way in which the various training schemes had grown up independently under the control of the operational and technical departments, of the need for co-ordination, and of the desirability of creating a central training branch at Post Office Headquarters. Training in basic skills would remain under the control of the specialised departments who had the knowledge needed to work out the details of the training and the responsibility for seeing that the arrangements met the needs of the work. But the Committee went on to suggest that a central body should be set up to look after general questions arising from specialised training; to look after training and education outside these special fields; to keep a general eye on training in the Post Office; to keep in touch with other organisations interested in training and education; and to deal with major questions and general policy. This is the origin of the present Training and Welfare Branch of the Personnel Department, remote, in one sense, by a double remove from the work of the field, since the line responsibility belongs to the Regional Directors and the staff responsibility to the specialised departments concerned with postal, telephone, telegraph and engineering work. A natural question is whether a central training branch of this kind, with advice, co-ordination and the training of instructors as its main functions, is useful. The balance of Post Office official opinion is, I think, that there is a need for such a branch; Staff Side opinion is unhesitatingly in favour. The principal doubt is about the boundaries of its functions, since the operational branches are inclined to look back with nostalgia at the days before the war when the personnel function in industry was rudimentary and rather shy. The complementary question is whether the central control of training should be concentrated in one branch covering all services and functions, as in some other large industrial organisations. This may be the ultimate outcome, but at present

TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE

it would be too much of an affront to the professional and specialist groups, and is hardly a possibility fit to be mentioned.

STAFF CONSULTATION

The Post Office Training Committee, following the suggestion of the Report of the Assheton Committee (para. 22) and the National Whitley Council Committee that followed it, recommended the setting up of arrangements to bring the two Staff Sides in on the development and conduct of Post Office training and education. It went further, and specifically recommended that a permanent training committee should be set up, including representatives of the official side and both Staff Sides—a bold and unprecedented advocacy of lions lying down with the lamb. The committee was duly set up, and recently held its forty-fifth meeting. The official side consists of representatives of Headquarters branches and Regions, while the staff side includes representatives of all the major groups of Post Office staff; the Assistant Secretary in charge of the Training and Welfare Branch is in the chair. This body, the Standing Joint Committee on Training and Education, has as its terms of reference the original recommendation “to advise the Administration on all matters concerned with training and education,” and although any agreements affecting particular trades unions are confirmed by them, it was agreed at the seventh meeting that it was unnecessary for all agreements to require full Whitley-Council ratification.

Specialised training is usually dealt with by sub-committees, or panels. The Committee agreed as long ago as its second meeting that clerical training should be discussed by a special panel and that other panels should be appointed as necessary. At the twelfth meeting it set up two more panels, one to deal with postal, telegraph and telephone training, and the other for engineering training. Later, postal training was divided from telecommunications training, and the engineering panel took under its wing the special grades employed in the Factories Department and the Supplies Department.

The main committee concerns itself now with general questions of training and education. It does, for example, keep under constant review the arrangements for the training of managers, and for the continued education of young people under 18 through day-release classes, correspondence courses, etc. It also receives regular reports from the specialised panels on matters of interest and major importance.

The clerical panel is interested in the training and education of non-technical general-service grades, and in particular of the clerical and executive classes. It has in the past devoted most of its attention to the training of clerical staff in the offices of Telephone Managers, as this is one of the biggest and most complicated tasks in this field, extending as it does over 57 Areas, while the office staff in Headquarters offices such as the Savings Department have less need of co-ordination, being in large self-contained units. The postal panel deals with all basic and supervisory training of postal grades, including counter staff; the postal grades who collect, sort, despatch and deliver mail; the staff who do the “admin.” work of Head Post Offices; and the sub-office postmasters who are not strictly civil servants at all. The telephone and telegraph panel is similarly concerned with telephonists,

telegraphists and their supervisors ; the engineering panel with technicians, technical officers, mechanics, photoprinters, draughtsmen, and many other technical grades, and with their supervisors. There is one other offshoot of the Standing Joint Committee, a small sub-committee of two official side and two staff side representatives, set up specifically to deal each year with the selection of twenty out of the 14,000 young people in the Post Office to go to one of the training courses run by the Outward Bound Trust.

It is again natural to ask whether this close co-operation with the Staff Sides is worth the time and effort that goes into it. My own answer, given without any hesitation, is that it is, and that consultative machinery of this kind, with a common purpose and with sincerity and goodwill on both sides, is one of the most important factors in creating and maintaining industrial harmony.

THE PATTERN OF RESPONSIBILITY

The distribution of functions reflects the general shape of Post Office organisation and the history of its training and education policy as described earlier.

The staff can be divided broadly into five groups. The largest, the postal, handles the mail and serves the public at the counters of Crown post offices ; there are 22,000 counter staff and 108,000 mail-handling staff, with 8,500 supervisors of various grades. The engineering group includes 78,000 engineering staff from labourer upwards, together with 3,250 in special grades in the Factories Department and 2,500 in the Supplies Department. The office group is mainly clerical (some 30,000), but also includes 12,000 people in great variety, professional engineers, typists and the Permanent Secretary. Telephone operating staff are 47,500, with 5,750 in supervising grades, while telegraphs have 6,500 with 750 supervisors. For the training of nine-tenths of this staff the immediate responsibility rests with the Regional Directors.

The functional headquarters departments, postal, telecommunications and engineering, are responsible in their own fields for training policy and the design of courses. There is at present no functional branch with operational responsibility for office staff, and the central Training and Welfare branch looks after this group, as well as other non-specialised grades such as Head Postmasters. The extent to which headquarters branches are part of the line of command is dubious, but there is a Whitely-Council agreement that there should be no Regional variation of training schemes without discussion by the Standing Joint Committee on Training and Education. The size of the headquarters groups concerned with training is small, with some 12 in the Training and Welfare branch engaged in the central organisation and planning of Post Office training and education, and fewer still in the specialised departments.

The Regions do most of their training locally and in Regional schools in accordance with the national patterns laid down at headquarters. The main exceptions are the central engineering training school, which provides certain basic and supervisory courses for the whole country and is run by the headquarters Engineering Department ; the traffic school and the sales school, which provide national courses for the grades that deal with operational

TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE

and sales work in the telecommunications field, and are run by the headquarters Inland Telecommunications Department ; the management training centre, which offers management courses, and the headquarters training centre, which trains instructors, both being parts of the headquarters Personnel Department.

Regional Directors, like Headquarters, have functional branches with operational responsibility for the different groups of staff and their training ; the engineering, postal and telecommunications branches explain themselves, while the staff and buildings branch is concerned with office-staff training. In addition, each Region has a specialist training officer. He has a particular responsibility for technique and quality of instruction, and for further education, but he is not usually part of the line of command and the amount of good he can do depends on the willingness of the functional branches to accept his help. In each of the functional branches there are one or two people directly concerned with the organisation of training and the control of Regional training schools in their special field ; the schools themselves vary in size, the largest having over 50 instructors.

Staff outside the Regions, numbering some 38,000, are the responsibility of their own Departmental heads in collaboration with interested headquarters branches ; the main groups in this category are the Savings Department (13,000 staff, mostly office grades), the Engineering Department (7,000), the External Telecommunications Executive (5,000), the Supplies Department (4,000 in all) and the Factories Department (also 4,000). Nearly all these units have staff directly responsible for the organisation of their training programmes, and some also have instructors, coming to about 90 people in all.

TRAINING OF NEW POSTAL STAFF

Basic training in the postal service is needed for postmen and counter staff. Postmen, engaged primarily for the collection and delivery of the mail, are not put through a standard centralised course : they may get one or two weeks' introductory training at a postal school (this happens in three Regions), but in the main their training is carried out locally in their own Head Offices. This training varies in quality, and we are just beginning a review, intended in particular to consider the pros and cons of school and local training ; a certain amount of local training will be necessary in any event, because some of the basic knowledge—e.g., of the method of sorting incoming correspondence—varies from office to office. Counter staff, on the other hand, get seven weeks of training at central Regional schools. The seven weeks include a certain amount of background and attitude training, but are essentially an intensive course in the knowledge and skill needed for the whole range of counter work, from the simple acceptance of parcels (though even this is a lot more complicated than it sounds) to the complexities of pensions, bonds, licences and radio telegrams. The course is broken into two parts, separated by sixteen weeks of practical work on junior counter duties, but even so it is not easy for the instructors to keep up the interest and assimilation rate with such a quantity of knowledge to be absorbed. The schools reproduce as closely as possible the actual conditions of work, using counters with all fittings, stamps, cash, parcels, forms, etc., for practice

transactions; the trainees act in turn as customers and counter clerks. The aim is to give every trainee enough practice to make him able to handle business confidently before he faces the public. At one school some of the practice periods have been designed specifically to teach courtesy—both attitude and skill—by rôle-play, and this technique is likely soon to be used in postal schools generally. The counter staff trained at these schools are known by the odd name of “postal and telegraph officers,” or, affectionately, as P & TOs.

TRAINING OF NEW TELECOMMUNICATIONS STAFF

Telephonists are almost all taught at Regional schools. A new standard course of five weeks has just successfully passed through its trial period, although a few special courses—e.g., for operators in the international services—will still be needed. The standard course is made up of classroom work, including an extensive use of visual aids and demonstration equipment, together with the handling of dummy traffic at practice positions using standard equipment. Each lesson consists of instruction in the theory of handling a particular type of call, followed by individual practice under supervision. At the end of the course the trainee goes to her own exchange for two to three weeks of further training, handling live traffic under experienced guidance. Finally, there is a test of speed and accuracy to be passed before the telephonist can take her part in the team.

The training of telegraphists is now, with the reduction in telegraph traffic, a shadow of its former self. But some is still in progress. In the inland service there is a school course of sixteen weeks, the length of which is largely determined by the time needed to develop the manual skill of teleprinter operation and the use of the telegraph typewriter. As in the telephone course, the day is divided between procedure and practice, and the course is followed by a week during which the trainee works at his home office on live traffic alongside an experienced operator. Overseas telegraphists get six months of training on entry, followed later by about eight months of further training in more advanced telegraph techniques and procedure.

Engineering youths spend their first two years in training; they are not apprentices, but rather learners following a programme of the kind suggested in *Citizens of Tomorrow* (p. 86). During this period they attend centralised school courses of five weeks during the first year and eight weeks during the second year, and they spend one day a week at technical schools working for certificates (City and Guilds or National); practical training continues throughout the period. The school training of engineering staff, including these youths, is divided between a national residential school¹ in Staffordshire, where complicated apparatus in great variety can be kept in more or less continuous use for demonstration and practical work, and eight Regional schools covering the more straightforward technical duties, particularly the construction and maintenance of overhead and underground line plant. The Regional schools cover more than 50 different subjects, but the central school at Stone has an even wider range, including long-distance television transmission, electronic telephone switching, and the design of underground cable systems. The courses at the school are nearly

TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE

all technical, and last from one to nine weeks ; the school is designed to accommodate 600 students, and is mostly worked to capacity.

TRAINING OF NEW OFFICE STAFF

Of the clerical staff—the people that some branches of industry call disarmingly just “staff” as distinct from the operatives—the majority work in Telephone Managers’ offices on commercial and accounts work. The scheme of training is based on background courses, given in all regional clerical schools, and specialised courses on, for example, contracts work, run by one or more Regions on behalf of the whole country. The background courses are designed to give the recruit an introduction to the Post Office, and, later, a widening of knowledge to cover all sides of the clerical division of the Telephone Manager’s office and a deepening understanding of the way the clerical division fits in with the three other divisions : engineering, traffic and sales. The specialised courses aim at giving full knowledge and practised skill in particular operations, though some learning at the desk is still necessary. Similar training of a simpler kind is given to the clerical assistants. Typists, who are usually recruited as such and need no basic instruction in keyboard skill, get a four-week course in a central school, and machine assistants a two-week course in accounting machine work. Clerical staff in the big Departments (notably the Savings Department, with some 10,000) get training on the same general lines, though with a greater emphasis on desk-instruction—partly because of the diversity of the work.

Of the staff recruited at degree and G.C.E. Advanced level, the numbers are quite small, and their training is more elaborate, since we must aim at getting the most out of a shorter working life and fitting these highly selected recruits quickly for the more complex types of work. Executive officers, for example, recruited by open competition at 18 or more, are allowed up to twelve months for their training ; this period is occupied by school courses and a tailor-made programme of practical experience, often resulting in the carrying of a full load before the twelve months are up. Assistant Principals, recruited by competition at 21 or more, were, like engineering youths, given a two-year training, including about twelve months in a Region getting practical experience of all sides of the work, from Regional Board meetings to delivering letters. This scheme did, however, make them restive and anxious for responsibility, and a new system has recently been worked out under which they go to a Region almost immediately after recruitment for a six-month programme strongly biased towards either postal or telecommunications work, and then return for a period of eighteen months or more of Headquarters work in two different branches. After this they will go back for a second six months of Regional experience, correcting the bias in the earlier period and seeing the other half of the picture with a mind enriched, or at least enlightened, by a knowledge of some of the problems of administration.

Other senior entrants are Assistant Engineers, whose work is primarily technical ; Telecommunications Traffic Superintendents, whose work is partly technical and partly managerial ; Executive Engineers ; and Assistant

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Postal Controllers. These, too, go through specially designed programmes, covering wider fields in less detail.

DEVELOPMENT TRAINING

Development training, as distinct from new-entrant or basic training, takes several forms, designed to widen and develop skill and judgment, to increase knowledge of the job and its context, and to prepare for supervisory, managerial and administrative work.

Movement from one kind of work to another is inevitable under the ordinary pressures of changing loads and managerial necessity. But some kind of planned movement is also necessary in the interests of the individual, to widen his range and outlook and even simply to avoid staleness.² We try to arrange this at all levels, and sometimes to make the transition easy by appropriate training. Postmen moving to sorting-office work go through a two-week school course; engineering technical staff changing their work get school training of varying length; clerical officers moving from one job to another go to a specialised duty course, and when they move from the commercial side to the engineering-accounting side or *vice versa* they get a more general course as a background; postal and telegraph officers moving to accounts and organising duties in Head Post Offices go to specialised "writing-duty" courses at Regional schools. Programmed changes of duty of this sort have been much discussed during the years since the war, and we believe that we have now got a reasonable balance between the interests of the individual and the immediate needs of the work.

Movement from one level to another is even more important. Here we have for many years used a device which seems to be far from well known: the use of specified juniors to cover absences in the next grade up the line. In a Head Post Office, for example, certain Assistant Inspectors will be selected, by a procedure rather like full promotion procedure, to act as Inspectors. When an Inspector falls sick, or goes on leave, one of the Assistant Inspectors on the so-called "acting list" will take over his duties and powers, his own place being taken by a higher-grade postman. In this way we give practical experience of higher duties to people coming within range of promotion, and simultaneously get a chance of seeing how they do the job. This admirable practice, of long standing in the field of postal, telephone and telegraph work, is now showing signs of spreading elsewhere. A useful accompaniment is a short school course explaining the higher duties and the principles of supervision to people selected for inclusion on the acting list for the first time: telephonists, for example, put on the list to act as first-line supervisors, get a one-week school course, followed by a week's training in an exchange other than their own.

At the higher levels, we attach great importance to movement between Headquarters, the Regions, and, for certain grades, the Areas.³ A certain amount of Headquarters work is administrative in the remote Whitehall sense, but much of it is a mixture of administrative, operational and technical, for which a practical understanding of field work and direct experience of management are needed if decisions are to be soundly based on realities. This kind of movement is accepted policy, and is practised as far as possible

TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE

in the administrative, operational and managerial groups. We hope in time to overcome the obstacles to extending it in the executive and professional fields.

TRAINING OF SUPERVISORS AND MANAGERS

The training of people already on supervisory grades, advocated in paragraph 77 of the Bridgeman Report and introduced tentatively before the War, was recommended again by the Post Office Training Committee, which commented in its first report, of August, 1944, on the value of training for potential supervisors, and in its second report of December, 1945, said categorically that such training should be given to existing supervisors. Since then a fair range of supervisory training has been developed, the movement in this direction being given further impetus by the Productivity Report on the *Training of Supervisors*.⁴

The first development of this kind was a course for first-line postal supervisors (Assistant Inspectors), which was tried out at Taunton and has since been extended to the whole country. This is a two-week course on the principles and practice of supervision in this special field, ranging from human relations to specific job-knowledge. It is, in fact, on lines that are now familiar, but it was in its day an innovation. More recently, a similar one-week course has been developed for postal Inspectors and Chief Inspectors, also carried out in the Regional postal schools; a course for first-line supervisors in the field of counter, organisation and accounts work in Post Offices has just been given a preliminary run.

The telecommunications field is well covered. There are Regional courses for charge hands and foremen on the engineering side, while the senior supervisors go to central courses at the Stone training school; all these courses last for two weeks, with the foremen (Inspectors) going to both the Regional and the central courses. First-line supervisors in telephone exchanges, on the operating side, get a two-week course in the Regional schools, and first-line telegraph supervisors get a similar course. There is also a one-week course for officers in charge of telephone exchanges, designed to give them an appreciation of the basis of the training of the staff under their command and to lessen the danger of a divergence between their attitudes and those of telephonists and junior supervisors. Higher staff can go to more advanced two-week courses, run at Stone for the engineers and at schools in London for traffic and sales people.

In the field of office work there is, for reasons mentioned later, practically no supervisory training. A course covering supervisory skill and job-knowledge was run at Headquarters for the senior clerical-executive supervisors in Regional and Telephone Area offices, and this was to have been extended to the same levels in Headquarters offices and then to the first-line supervisors. It is now in suspense, as also is the scheme that had been worked out for a one-week course for senior staff under the title of "courses in the conduct of Post Office business."

Training in general management has been in progress for six years. These courses are residential, held in an hotel outside the holiday season, and last a month. They were designed primarily for people personally exercising devolved powers in charge of self-contained units, and for their lieutenants, but the benefit of their mixing with each other was increased

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

by including in the courses a few people from Regional offices and some of the Headquarters Departments. The students are drawn from all sides of the Post Office ; we have had much in mind the Percy Committee's remark⁵ that "the highly trained technician is often ignorant of the principles of industrial organisation and management." The design of the courses was based on Administrative Staff College methods, and still relies on lectures-with-questions, syndicate study, and discussion. Most of the people for whom the course was designed have now had an opportunity of attending the Management Training Centre, and the character of the work has changed slightly as the working-out of the programme has changed the average composition of the group ; junior managers on the postal side are now very much in the majority. It will soon be necessary for us to reconsider our plans for management training : when the existing people have been covered we shall have to work out how best to cater for management succession, and how far it will be possible to take advantage of recent developments in management training, such as the use of various forms of case-study, sociodrama, group project work and the concepts of group dynamics. We can legitimately hope for a more permanent residential training centre, even of the austere kind appropriate to civil servants. Such a centre could do much to keep up standards of efficiency and humanity in all branches of Post Office work, and might also make a real contribution towards solving the problem of relationships between the professional/technical staff and the administrative/managerial staff, rightly referred to by Dr. Tickner⁶ as one of the most difficult administrative problems of any country.

EXTERNAL TRAINING AND EDUCATION

In the further education of its young people the Post Office can claim a pioneer's credit, with youth clubs, boy messengers' institutes and day-release classes long before the Education Act made such provision a national policy, and even before the Fisher Act.⁷ At present all Post Office staff under 18 may, and some must, continue their general education for one day a week (or its equivalent in terms of evening classes or correspondence courses where local conditions make these expedients necessary). Conclusive figures cannot be got, but we suspect that the Post Office is the largest single user of general-education day-release classes in the country, and also that a higher proportion of our youngsters attend than from any other large organisation. In addition, engineering youths compulsorily attend technical classes for one day a week to get technical certificates and the extra pay that goes with them.

Staff over 18 are in general not given time off to attend classes as a matter of course, but for certain studies likely to be of direct use to them as public servants they can get practical help of various kinds. The emphasis is on technical work, but it is not confined to this ; in 1955 there were over 50 people getting official help in reading for a degree in their spare time. There are also opportunities for exceptional people in the scientific field to attend universities or technical colleges with bursaries for degree studies, and we are hoping to extend this beyond the scientific grades.

An important part of external training, though it can benefit only the few, is attendance at training courses organised by the Treasury and other

TRAINING AND EDUCATION IN THE POST OFFICE

more specifically educational institutions ; we make an effort to send senior staff to these courses as far as funds and the pressure of work allow. The courses arranged by the Administrative Staff College and similar organisations are particularly valuable in that they present opportunities for meeting people in business and industry in a way that we all value but generally have to forgo in favour of the struggle to overtake arrears of work.

A particularly interesting form of external training is the exchange of staff with the communications administrations of other countries. Recently certain engineering staff at the basic level exchanged jobs with their opposite numbers in Norway and Holland ; this experiment, organised by a joint official-side/staff-side committee, was successful in spite of language difficulties, and plans are afoot to repeat and extend it. Another example is the exchange of the Regional Training Officer from our London Telecommunications Region with a training expert from Australia ; this exchange lasted for twelve months, during which the Australian spent some time in a Region and then joined my branch where he did practical work on the development of plans for the supervisory training of executive staff and in the training of instructors at our Headquarters Training Centre.

A variant of this international exchange is the training of postal and telecommunications staff from overseas ; some, interested solely in technical work, are catered for by our Engineering Department, while others—nearly 100 last year—have a variety of courses, often long, arranged for them individually by the central Training and Welfare Branch.

GENERAL COMMENTS

This brief survey of Post Office training and education has, broadly, followed the pattern of historical development : new entrants, first-line supervisors, higher supervisors, management. Ideally, of course, training ought to start at the top. The fact that Post Office training failed to develop this way since the war does not indicate a disbelief in that proposition, nor is it mere perversity : the simple explanation is that the jobs of retraining the people coming back from the War, and of simultaneously expanding the training machine to cope with the greater flow of recruits resulting from post-war instability, meant that most of the available resources were swallowed up at the basic level and, later, in the training of potential and actual first-line supervisors. Managers and higher supervisors had to wait, and even now are not fully covered.

A further distortion of planned development, leading to concentration on basic training at the expense of a balanced pattern, particularly in the clerical/executive field, came from the way in which the Post Office has suffered from the impact of national financial crises as well as internal stringency, and has not in the past been able, although an industry, to escape political pressures for arbitrary cuts in the Civil Service and Government expenditure. The effect of some of these cuts was referred by Mrs. Johnstone in 1952 :⁸

"The most recent thought about training, however, has run chiefly on the connection between training and manpower. In 1949 (E.C. 16/49) the Treasury announced that it did not subscribe to the view

that training must suffer if economies in manpower were to be achieved, since training could itself contribute to saving manpower, but added that training could like other activities be run in ways which needed excessive staffing and that economies might be possible in it. In September, 1951 (E.C. 75/51), the Treasury said that it was increasingly necessary to economise in manpower: that the training of the new recruit should concentrate primarily on his immediate task, and that, in effect, background training might have to recede a little further into the background. 'Current difficulties,' the circular went on, 'call for a greater measure than ever before of originality and resourcefulness on the part of members of the training staff and others who deal with the organisation of training.'"

Since then, crisis has succeeded crisis, and the pressure for short-term cuts has never receded for long enough to get the development of Post Office training back on to an even keel, with balanced and planned development.

The harsh truth is that the cost of training is immediate and obvious, while the cost of not training is dispersed and hidden.

On the other hand, the Productivity Report, in writing of practice in the U.S.A., offers some encouragement: "

"All the larger companies were spending a very substantial amount of money on training and in most cases it proved impossible to isolate the total expenditure from the normal operating costs of the factory. No figures were available to us as to the estimated savings effected. It was widely recognised that, as with other personnel work, no strict financial evaluation of training is possible, and there was no evidence, except in a few isolated cases, that any companies attempted such an evaluation. . . . Our persistent enquiries on this matter seemed to cause some surprise and we gained the impression that there was general acceptance of training as an essential tool of production; the main concern lay with content, method and, above all, procedure in obtaining the full co-operation of members of the line organisation."

We have in the Post Office made some attempts at validation and evaluation, though we have been too short of headquarters staff to do as much as we should have liked. Validation of basic training is in one sense a continuous process, since it must achieve its aims or the work will not get done; there are also objective tests, as at the end of the telephonist course. Evaluation is more difficult, but we believe, generally, that the training we give is as cheap as it can be—perhaps cheaper than it ought to be. Assessment (validation ÷ evaluation) of our supervisory and managerial training is particularly difficult, and even with the help of a good deal of experimental work by N.I.I.P. we have failed to get conclusive answers, though there has been reason for mild satisfaction.

Assessment of training must, in the present rudimentary state of the art, contain a large element of personal opinion. My own conclusion is that Post Office training is by and large sound, effective, and efficient. But there is still scope for improvement, particularly in the supervisory and management fields, where shortage of staff and funds has led to a tendency to administer

the mixture as before, without much reconsideration or research. And the fact that the cost of training in the Post Office, assessed as a percentage of all staff costs, is consistently falling year after year seems to me just as likely to be a danger signal as a cause for satisfaction.

¹See *Manchester Guardian*, 30th January, 1957.

²See Assheton Committee Report, Cmd. 6525, para. 29.

³See Bridgeman Committee Report, Cmd. 4149, para. 120.

⁴Productivity Report on *Training of Supervisors*, Anglo-American Council on Productivity, 1951.

⁵*Report of a Special Committee on Higher Technological Education*, H.M.S.O., 1945, para. 71.

⁶*Public Administration*, Spring, 1956, page 37.

⁷Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 3, 1945, para. 5.

⁸*Public Administration*, Spring, 1952, page 54.

⁹*Op. cit.*, paras. 129 and 132.

SELECTED STUDIES PREPARED FOR THE UNITED NATIONS

The Royal Institute of Public Administration, which is the United Kingdom National Section of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, is able to supply a number of studies produced by the International Institute for the United Nations. These studies were intended primarily for under-developed countries, but those listed below will be of interest and value to administrators in this country. They should be ordered direct from the Royal Institute of Public Administration.

Handbook of Organisation and Methods Techniques by H. O. DOVEY.
Pp. 61, 4s. 9d.

This handbook provides an outline of the problems to be faced in the study of the organisation and methods of an administrative unit, and of some of the ways of approaching them. It contains an account of the practice of O. & M. work as applied in the United Kingdom Civil Service, and is written for both the practising O. & M. Officer and the recruit to O. & M. duties.

Presenting O. & M. Recommendations by K. S. JEFFERIES. Pp. 23, 4s.

A study of the problems to which the presentation of O. & M. recommendations to the executive authorities gives rise. Among the methods of presentation with which the author deals are discussions, demonstrations, charts and written reports.

Improvement of Organisation and Management in Public Administration by T. D. KINGDOM. Pp. 180, 14s. 3d.

A comparative study of ways of improving organisation and management based on information obtained from 22 national governments and four international organisations. This material is appended and the body of the book analyses it to bring out underlying principles.

Some Human Aspects of Administration by HARTVIG NISSEN. Pp. 158, 13s. 6d.

The author presents, primarily for higher executives, a synthesis of modern ideas on personnel management in government organisations. His aim is to provide material for discussion groups of higher executives, by which they may gain a clear understanding of the importance of human factors in administration.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Haldane House, 76A New Cavendish Street, London, W.1

I
rece
serv
have
our
on it
Serv
train

One
conce
of wo
a stro
may c
work,
them
writen
them,
thinki
open-r
instruc
questio
instruc
into co
is a da
deaf e
article
of Tea
that th
for any
is requ
howeve

Ap
of deali
*Edi
England

The Use of Case Study in the British Civil Service

By MISS AVICE TURNBULL

Miss Turnbull, a Tutor in the Training and Education Division of the Treasury, has been closely concerned with the development of the use of "cases" as a method of training.

I WRITE as a tutor in the Training and Education Division of H.M. Treasury. The job of this Division is described by Mr. D. F. Hubback, until very recently its Director, in the first article. My part in it is to help civil servants to become effective instructors. In the last two or three years we have introduced case study as one of the major training techniques we teach our apprentice instructors. In this article I shall try to explain why we look on it as a valuable technique, for what purposes we use it in the British Civil Service, and what variations in its use have sprung up in Departmental training.

The Value of the Case Study Method

One of the skills of an instructor in the Civil Service must be to capture the concentration of his students. This task is not always easy; in many fields of work, instructors are dealing with groups of mature people who do not have a strongly felt and compelling motive to learn. For instance, the course may deal with supervision or management, or with the improvement of written work, or the increase of individual efficiency. The listeners may consider themselves already to be satisfactory supervisors, good managers, effective writers or efficient workers. If the instructor is to make any impression on them, he must arouse their interest, stimulate their thought and keep them thinking actively and purposefully about the subject. Some students may be open-minded, receptive and co-operative—the apple of the hard-working instructor's eye; but others may be more sophisticated, and more ready to question any apparent over-simplification of ideas, any "steering" by an instructor to predetermined conclusions, any suggestion of being bulldozed into compliance, or taught to suck eggs. In these general fields of study, there is a danger of an instructor's uttering pious platitudes which will fall on deaf ears and leave minds closed. As Professor Charles Gragg says in his article "Because Wisdom Can't Be Told," published in *The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration**, "it can be said flatly that the mere act of listening to wise statements and sound advice does little for anyone. In the process of learning, the learner's dynamic co-operation is required. Such co-operation from students does not arise automatically, however. It has to be provided for and continually encouraged."

Apart from the danger of boring the listener, there is also the danger of dealing with subjects of this kind in terms so broad that they fail to make

*Edited by Kenneth R. Andrews. (Harvard University Press, 1955, distributed in England by Oxford University Press.)

any contact with the everyday realities of people's jobs. Professor Roethlisberger in his article "Training Supervisors in Human Relations," published in the same book, gives some realistic examples of the mere playing with words which can result from so-called "discussion" of abstract principles of conduct. The same remoteness can characterise talks about "clear expression" in writing, or "the exercise of judgement and discretion" in case work in offices. The Civil Service instructor must always try to bridge the gap between the apparent artificiality of the training centre room and the reality of the job itself. Civil Servants, in my experience, are mainly hard-headed practical people, who eschew the academic or theoretical as a waste of time, and the barriers which they put up against what they consider purely theoretical teaching may be justified, for the real need is not so much to implant principles or standards of administration in their minds, which might lead to a woolly discussion of generalities, as to help them to be more alert to the implications of their work, more self-critical of their own standards, and more alive to the possibilities of improvement.

Where an instructor is imparting facts, or explaining law or procedures, or giving people practice in handling specimens of work, the older teaching techniques can be used: straightforward exposition, questioning, visual aids, films, tests, exercises, practical work. These are well tried, and an instructor who is competent can usually rely on teaching effectively by them. In general, in the Civil Service, "vocational" training courses, which teach people their jobs, or "background" courses telling them about the work and organisation of their Ministry, run smoothly and are well received. The need to learn is evident to the student. Case study is seldom used in these courses. It comes into its own in the less clearly defined subjects.

Let us take supervision and management courses. In common with industry, the British Civil Service is aware of the need to improve the standards of its first-line supervisors and its managers. The first main drive towards this was the adoption of the Training Within Industry programmes, Job Relations, Job Instruction, and to a much lesser extent, Job Methods. Civil Service instructors were trained at T.W.I. Institutes for Job Relations and Job Instruction, held at the Treasury until 1952. The T.W.I. Manuals were followed; their contents were slightly altered to include clerical as well as industrial examples, but the teaching technique was as laid down in these Manuals, that is the "controlled" discussion of general principles, illustrated by examples, chosen to highlight one aspect of their subject.

In 1952 the Treasury discontinued these T.W.I. Institutes. For a short time, some Departments worked out their own programmes for supervision training, some using the T.W.I. material or part of it, and others devising their own material. Other Departments, because of their particular needs, still continue to use this as part of their training for first-line supervisors. The Training and Education Division then decided to replace the T.W.I. Institutes by a training course for instructors of supervision subjects, designed for Civil Service needs. Instead of very simple "principles," a broader-based discussion of human relations problems and of staff management generally was introduced. The use of free discussion, syndicate discussion, case study and of rôle-playing was demonstrated in the course. Shortly after the introduction of this new course, the Ministry of Pensions and National

Insurance, feeling the need for a new approach to supervision training, joined forces with the Treasury Training and Education Division in devising a course for their instructors. While preparing for this new course the tutors read as widely as possible in the literature of training for supervision and came across accounts of the use of case study in America. We decided to bring it much more to the fore in our new course. Here I should like to say that we are much indebted to the American writers, especially Professor Roethlisberger, J. D. Glover and R. M. Hower, Harold Stein and the writers in the symposium *The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration*. They gave us a starting point, although, in many ways, as I shall show, we have diverged from the practices they described.

How Used in the Civil Service

One of the first cases, then, used here for training instructors, was one prepared by the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance. They put on paper an account of an imaginary local office of the Ministry: "Lowood." This has become something of a classic among our case studies. The file about Lowood contains a ground plan of the office, an organisation chart of the staff, brief pen pictures of their characters and office experience, a work flow chart, a holiday chart for the staff, and a "background" sheet describing the town of Lowood and its problems as they impinge on the local office. Part of the basic material from the Lowood file and some question papers based on it are contained in an Annex to this article. Although the office could not be a real one, it was based on real life, an amalgam of facts from various offices. Within the setting of this office, problems of many kinds could be put forward for discussion. I well remember the launching of this case and the interest aroused among our trainee instructors. In our courses at the Treasury the instructors under training act as guinea pig students, thus providing a group for us and each other to practise on. Although the instructors were experienced supervisors and mature and sophisticated people, they found plenty of food for thought and active discussion in this case. Since then the same case has been used with many groups of instructors under training or of Training Officers, and has always aroused lively discussion. Its success is largely due to its trueness to life. It is very real to those working in the Department. Also, there is no attempt in the running of the case to isolate aspects of supervision into artificially watertight compartments. Any one of the problems posed in the context of this office can give rise to a widely ranging discussion, covering topics such as allocation of posts, delegation, training of staff, relationships among staff and between supervisor and staff, and even allocation of rooms among staff and physical layout of the office. The office comes to life, and during the ten-day course for which it is used in the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance itself, its problems can be considered many times without losing their appeal. It also lends itself to rôle-playing, which I shall mention again later.

The idea of case studies spread rapidly among Departments and others followed suit, producing similar types. However, the imaginary, but true to life, office of a standard pattern does not do for every Department. It works for a Regionalised Department with local offices doing the same kind of work, but not for students coming from the Headquarters of a Department, who

work in sections, each of which is doing separate and often very different kinds of work. One way of dealing with the problem is to devise an imaginary section doing work based on real work, and pose problems set in this context. This has been done by the Ministry of Education, in two studies. Another way is to devise an entirely imaginary setting, as the Air Ministry have done with their Assistant Directorate of Dental Care studies. All three of these studies are fairly fully documented so that there is flesh on their bones.

It will be clear to those familiar with the American studies published by Harold Stein in *Public Administration and Policy Development* that our studies so far described are aimed at a different kind of student from his. His are long, couched in narrative form, and aimed at students of public administration who want to consider policy formation and the machinery of administration at a high level. These British ones are shorter, are not usually expressed as a continuous narrative, and deal with practical problems encountered by supervisors and managers at middle management level. They also differ from those referred to by Professor Roethlisberger in his article "Training Supervisors in Human Relations" in which he says: "I am only speaking of the case method as applied to the area of human relations, since it is to this area alone that my experience has been limited." We have found the case method suitable for other subjects, so far for all aspects of office management, for training in written English and for our "Conduct of Public Business" courses mentioned in Mr. Hubback's article.

In the Conduct of Public Business course we are aiming at officers of Higher Executive Officer, Senior Executive Officer and sometimes Chief Executive Officer and Principal level. The aim of these courses is to increase efficiency both in management and in personal standards of work, by directing attention to the avoidance of delays and arrears, increases in speed and accuracy, sensitiveness to the needs of Parliament, Ministers, and the public, and the effective handling of staff. In 1956 we started a training course for instructors who would be handling these courses, which were largely a new venture in Civil Service training. We decided to lay a good deal of emphasis on the value of the case method, and all instructors attending the course had to produce one case suitable for this level of officer and this kind of training. These courses produced a crop of case studies of a new type. For a demonstration given at the Treasury, we took an actual file from the Home Office, dealing with a tricky "borderline" case. It was not "cooked" in any way, and consisted of about 50 actual documents and minutes. Within this, all kinds of points could be discovered and usefully discussed. The students themselves had to identify the relevant points from the file. The people coming to the course brought cases which varied from similar files to descriptions of incidents and of the working of office sections; sometimes only half a sheet of typewritten quarto was used. The interesting thing was that there seemed to be no standard formula for success. A very short case could provoke as lively a discussion as a long, fully-documented one, and often many facets were discovered in something apparently simple. Nearly all the cases had one thing in common, they were taken from life. We feel that unless an instructor has the insight of a great novelist he cannot make up a case which has in it the variety of complex patterns which life itself reflects. Also a contrived case may easily be an over-simplification of life, and thus

destroy one of the main purposes of case study, which is to help students to discover for themselves the forces at work, their significance and their inter-relationships.

We have also tried the case method with a course mainly composed of Principals, once only, so far, and it met with a very mixed reception. This may have been partly due to the presentation. But there is no doubt that the more senior officers do need a case of sufficient complexity to stretch their mental powers, and these cases are hard to come by. There are no suitable published cases, and the British tradition of anonymity might make publication of real cases difficult. Within the Service, it is a matter of laboriously searching in files for material which can be used in this way; and it is not easy to find a case which is both demanding enough and yet reasonably self-contained. We are only at the beginning of our search at this level.

There are a number of possible variations in the presentation of cases. One is the spoken study, possibly illustrated with a blackboard diagram showing an organisation chart of an office. This is more difficult for an instructor to run since the group do not have the facts before them except in the form of scrappy jottings and it seems that a written record leads to more fruitful work. However, great vividness can be created by a tape recording used as an introduction, followed by the written script for detailed study. The Post Office have produced some very effective scripts introduced in this way. In one or two training centres realism is added to the discussion of a physical layout of an office by the use of small wooden blocks representing furniture, which is moved around on a large diagram of the rooms concerned. We are always hearing of new experiments by Departmental instructors with the case method.

The use of case method for practice in written English has been very successful where it has been tried, notably in the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. They started doing this some time before the training label "case study" was adopted over here, but for some of the same inherent reasons. To preach principles of clear writing sounds sanctimonious and it does little to impress those who are most complacent and who may most need a jolt into awareness and a new standard. The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food took a real file, and used it at intervals throughout a week's course for Executive Officers. At the beginning of the week, the file was given out in the form in which it would reach an officer straight from the Registry. It contained two letters, one from a member of the public, and one from a colleague. The students were given a sheet of "background" information and asked to answer the letters. Their efforts were corrected, comments were made by the instructors (an exacting job calling for much discrimination and tact) and returned, together with specimen letters. Then more documents were handed out, taking the case further, and students were asked to write a summary. Again the work was collected in, commented upon, and returned with the specimen. Stage by stage, and following the same procedure, a memorandum, a circular and a press notice were prepared. The students' interest was high, they were very active (of necessity!), and they learned about their own strengths and weaknesses. Later a similar procedure was brought in for Higher Executive Officers, with a more difficult file, and again it was well received. Most of the work was individual, but

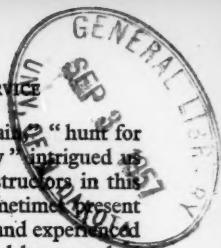
in the Higher Executive Officers' course, syndicate discussions were held at which groups discussed the best line of action to recommend in their memorandum. Their conversations were recorded and played back at a joint session at which they were asked to comment on the processes of reasoning by which they had reached their conclusions.

The Rôle of the Instructor

This leads me to what we consider to be one of the vital elements for success with case study, the way in which it is handled by the instructor. We are well aware that to get the best out of a case, however well chosen, the instructor must play a skilful part. Our trainee instructors at our Central Departmental Instructors' (Supervision) and Central Departmental Instructors' (Conduct of Public Business) courses have each to present a case study, and the technique is then commented on by the tutors and their fellow instructors, who have acted as guinea pig students for them. The tutors in the Training and Education Division have read with gratitude what Professor Roethlisberger and J. D. Glover and R. M. Hower and the writers in the Kenneth R. Andrews book have said about the handling of case studies. We have found the booklet *Some Notes on the Use of the Administrator* by J. D. Glover and R. M. Hower particularly useful. We have also learned from experience here and have developed some variations from the American practice as we understand it. These variations result, I think, partly from the very limited time we have, partly from the maturity of our students, and perhaps in part from indefinable differences in national characteristics.

Our limitations of time mean that we cannot, in our judgement, just let students loose on case after case, as seems to happen at the Harvard Business School, and let them gradually learn wisdom. We try to give freedom to the students to think through the cases for themselves, to which we attach great importance, taking very seriously the warning of Messrs. Glover and Hower: "The instructor who tries to teach in the sense of directing the discussion towards foregone conclusions will seriously interfere with the learning process." On the other hand we do attach importance to the instructor's rôle as a chairman. We suggest that he should give a certain shape to the discussion. After letting the group start in where it will on a case he encourages others to join in and give their views on that aspect of it. He may also sum up their views on that point before following them on to the next aspect. We feel that without this progressive grouping of ideas under headings, which follows the group's own lead, one might get an extremely shapeless and bewildering conversation, which might leave the group in a state of mental confusion. It is, of course, vital that the instructor does not at any stage tell the group what to think, although he may throw in a point for consideration if he thinks it is being overlooked. At the end he summarises the points made by the group as a whole, and from the individual case generalises to any broad conclusions which it has illustrated. He also holds the ring between students, just as in a normal free discussion, by bringing in quiet members, restraining monopolists, and keeping the "pot boiling" if necessary, by throwing out relevant questions to them.

Professor Roethlisberger's delicious account of how he handles his



groups of students and deals with those who "hunt the villain," "hunt for perfection," "hunt for more facts," and "hunt for authority," intrigued as and we did our best to follow suit and also to coach our instructors in this art. We found that symptoms of these witch-hunts were sometimes present in our groups but only in mild forms because they are mature and experienced people. At the Treasury courses they are also instructors and have reached a level of self-discipline possibly higher than that among ordinary civil servants. Nevertheless, for myself, when I see irrational thinking and prejudice raising its head my favourite interjection is "why?". I have been told that this is not a fair question, but no group has ever reached the state of seething frustration described by Professor Roethlisberger. To a large extent our students discipline each other.

As tutors, we have had to try to reduce our criteria of successful handling of cases to some form in which they can be passed on from one to another as our staff change. The colleague with whom I worked when we were devising our training in the use of case methods, Mr. N. D. Wolf, has now left this Division, and much of his original contribution in working out the technique has had to be put on paper for future generations of tutors. A paper we wrote for our instructors, *On Writing and Running Case Studies*, contains much of this, and we also have evolved a "check list" for use in appraising the performance of instructors practising the case method here. This covers such points as whether the case was realistic and not "cooked"; whether it was true to life and not over-simplified; whether in discussion the relationships were brought out and logical reasoning shown; whether the instructor restrained himself and did not try to force his own opinion on the group; whether everyone joined in and no-one dominated; whether there were signs of irrational thinking and if so whether they were revealed; and whether useful lessons were brought out. The commentary by the tutor is by no means a solo. He directs these questions to the guinea pig students and asks for their honest opinion on their reaction to the treatment given them by the instructor under training. This is both a fairer test than the subjective and individual opinion of the tutor and also much more acceptable to the trainee instructor.

Some Departmental Training Centres run cases in syndicate, either without an instructor, or with an instructor present either as an observer or "resource person" to provide more facts if needed. He may throw in a point of view if discussion is slackening but he is in no sense a chairman. Syndicates will discuss an aspect of a case, then come together to report their findings, under the instructor's chairmanship. At the Treasury we have our doubts about this method although many instructors favour it. Certainly the feeling of freedom and responsibility it engenders is acceptable, especially to senior groups and they generally seem to work hard. The danger we see is that a group may be monopolised by a strong personality, to the exclusion of the others, or they may all air their prejudices unchecked, or beat the air unfruitfully. At the reporting back stage the syndicate's conclusions are given, but the processes by which they were reached, which demonstrate their thinking power, may not be known. Too much attention may be focused on the arrival at a "solution." The conclusion of any one case is ephemeral in value, but the thinking processes are permanent. The instructor handling

a case study should, we think, always focus attention on the general lessons which have emerged from a case rather than on any solution which may have been advanced.

We have issued two short papers to our instructors, one "Case Study in Supervision Training" and one "On Writing and Running Case Studies." The first deals broadly with the purpose of the case method in teaching, and the second concentrates on practical hints. In the first we identify the "case problem" as compared with the "case illustration." In the first, the story is left unfinished and the group must suggest lines of action; the second tells a completed story, and its implications are analysed. Most of our instructors seem to prefer to use the case problem, which leads on to a decision for action. Their groups can identify themselves with a certain level of authority and decide what they would do if they were working at that level in the case. Naturally enough they generally choose a level similar to their present one. If a case illustration is presented, they find it difficult to identify themselves with anyone in it and seem to find the pure analysis of implications and factors at work of less interest than the preparation for action. Maybe this is an Anglo-Saxon trait.

Where a case leads on to action it frequently lends itself to rôle-playing, and many times has our imaginary character Mr. N. of the Lowood office of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance been put through his paces here by a group member "dealing" with him as he thinks his supervisor should. The merits and demerits of rôle-playing are a separate subject which I cannot enter into here, but certainly the case study often provides the opportunity for some good rôle-playing situations which rouse a high level of interest in the group.

Conclusion

From the centre of the network of Civil Service training here at the Treasury we have seen a rapid growth of case study for which much credit is due to instructors in Departmental Training Centres. We have tried to plant seeds and they have grown up and flowered in a variety of ways. Experiments continue and we try to act as a clearing house for information about them and to amass a collection of case studies from Departments. This is growing. We do not try to lay down any dogma about case study—even if we did our instructors are too independently minded to follow it blindly—but we do think that experience has brought out some general points which I might briefly summarise here. Case study is a technique which generates a high degree of interest and is well received by our clients—mature, critical, sometimes hard-headed or even hard-boiled Civil Servants. We therefore recommend its use for experienced or senior officers, in subjects where straightforward teaching techniques might not hit the mark. We do not find that any Department practises unrelieved case study throughout a training course. It is used as one string to the bow. The case must be as relevant to the needs of a particular group as can be managed. It should be realistic even if it cannot be real, and should not be over-simplified or pre-digested. The emphasis throughout should be on getting a group to work their own way through the case with only a light touch from the instructor guiding them to re-examine

their thinking, to probe it, to justify it and to broaden their mental horizons. These are our own beliefs; some instructors might not even accept all of these wholeheartedly and our own minds are still open. It is interesting to find that although the methods may seem new the approach goes far back. I have not found the attitude of mind which the instructor should bring to this job anywhere better expressed than by Francis Bacon when he says: "I do not endeavour either by triumphs of confutation, or pleading antiquity, or assumption of authority, or even by the veil of obscurity, to invest these inventions of mine with any majesty. . . . I have not sought nor do I seek either to force or ensnare men's judgements, but I lead them to things themselves and the concordances of things, that they may see for themselves what they have, what they can dispute, what they can add and contribute to the common stock."

ANNEX—THE LOWOOD CASE

The basic material and questions contained in this Annex were prepared by the Staff Training Branch of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance for use in management courses. Both the office and the persons described are fictitious and letters have been used to identify the characters. In training courses, imaginary names are used for the characters.

BASIC MATERIAL

LOWOOD NATIONAL INSURANCE OFFICE—GENERAL DESCRIPTION

1. Lowood is a small market town, of about 26,000 people, set in rural surroundings. Three miles north of the town there is a coal mine employing some 5,000 men and a further 6,000 are engaged in light industry. The remainder of the insured population (some 6,000) are engaged in agriculture, distributive and clerical work. On the southern outskirts of the town is a training depot of a Regiment which has a constant intake of boys doing service prior to regular engagement.

2. The town is residential and has one main shopping street. In the summer it is a centre for holiday-makers and tourists as it is within easy reach of several well-known beauty spots. It is served by a branch line railway connecting with the main line at a junction eighteen miles distant, while the bus company operating in the area maintains a small depot in Lowood from which services are run to the neighbouring villages.

3. The office is a Victorian semi-detached house in the High Street, close to the railway station and the bus depot. The premises were used by an Army unit during World War II, and after the war stood empty for some time. When it was decided to use the building as the local office, essential repairs and redecoration were carried out. This work, however, was only superficial and nothing was done to modernise the premises in any way. Heating is by coal fires. Gas and electricity are laid on. The rooms on the second floor are semi-garrets formerly used as servants' quarters.

4. The staff complain of dirty windows and dirty tables, mantel-pieces, lampshades, etc. The manager, however, has no complaint about the way in which his room is cleaned and feels that the cleaner does her best in view of the

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

old and inconvenient premises and the fact that she is rather elderly and finds difficulty in carrying coal up the narrow and badly lit stairs.

5. There is a leaflet rack in the public office where members of the public help themselves to leaflets and scatter them on the floor. The floor is also frequently littered with cigarette ends.

6. There is a nearby doctor's surgery, and it is the practice among some claimants to collect medical certificates on Saturday morning and bring them in to the local office at about 11 a.m. demanding cash payments as they have no money for Sunday's dinner. The number of other callers is large on that day because the majority of the insured population have a five-day week. Consequently, it is difficult to avoid a queue forming outside the office, which causes adverse comments by the occupants of neighbouring property.

7. There are some 250 "live" disablement benefit claims, 130 of them being in respect of pneumoconiosis cases. An officer from the National Assistance Board visits on two half-days per week to conduct interviews and make emergency payments.

8. The staff consists of a Higher Executive Officer Manager, one Executive Officer, six Clerical Officers, three Temporary Clerks, Grade III, and one typist. An Inspector is shared with one other local office giving only one and a half days per week to Lowood. Brief pen pictures and official histories of the staff are given at pages 135-138.

9. The Manager believes in delegating as much as possible, and takes the view that it is his job to manage rather than to become involved in details. He realises that Mr. B likes responsibility and is keen to give him as much scope as possible. Consequently, he (the Manager) supervises only the cashier's section.

10. Mr. A has placed responsibility for the proper performance of a job squarely on the shoulders of the person doing it, and has made it clear to the staff that they will each be held responsible for seeing that their own work is kept up to date. No accumulation of arrears of work will be countenanced. As far as possible, however, each one will be allowed a free hand to organise his work as he thinks best subject to the overriding authority of the Executive Officer and the Manager.

11. Mr. A has arranged that post-opening should be done in the Contributions Section so that Miss E, whose charted hours have been arranged to meet her domestic requirements, can deal with the mail. Mr. H is replaced at lunch-time and assisted in times of pressure by Mr. F. Pensions callers are usually directed to the Pensions Section.

12. Manager's checks of benefit payments are shared between the Manager and the Executive Officer.

13. The Manager knows that the organisation of the office is greatly influenced by the staff and premises available, and is satisfied that the present arrangement is the best that he can do in the circumstances.

14. Mr. A is a practical man and believes that a job is best learnt by practical experience, and that in a small office such as this, everybody must be a jack-of-all-trades to be able to fit in anywhere if an emergency arises. He considers now that the office is normally too busy for time to be spared to send staff on training courses. The training of new staff and of staff put on to new work is left to Mr. B, who, in turn, leaves it to one of the more experienced Clerical Officers. The general method is for the learner to sit by the skilled officer and observe what is going on.

THE USE OF CASE STUDY IN THE BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE

15. Occasionally, the Manager discusses with the Executive Officer changes in the work: circulars, code amendments and other documents are sent round to the staff to study. The Manager has instructed Mr. G that all circulars must be seen by all the staff.

16. The Manager is on friendly terms with the local Council officials, Employment Exchange Manager and larger employers. He deals personally with all Minister's cases and corresponds with the local M.P. With the aim of fostering good relations, he spends a good deal of his official time on visits to local "important" people.

LOWOOD NATIONAL INSURANCE OFFICE—

BRIEF PEN PICTURES AND OFFICIAL HISTORIES OF STAFF

Mr. A, Higher Executive Officer

Age 59; ex-Customs and Excise; transferred to Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1948 as Executive Officer; promoted 1950 to Higher Executive Officer and appointed Manager of Lowood Local Office. Is concerned with the problem of getting through the mass of work. Considers he should have more staff and complains at times to Region about this and that his present staff could be of better quality. A practical man who eschews theory. Looks on Headquarters and Region (especially Survey) as theorists who would soon change their tune if they had to do the job. Considers that there are too many instructions and that they leave him insufficient scope. Thinks he should be left to run his own office in his own way without "interference" from above.

His hobby is golf.

Courses: May, 1948—New Acts.
April, 1950—Three-days Management Discussion (at Headquarters.)

Mr. B, Executive Officer

Age 43; married; two children. Served in Army (Airborne Division) during 1939-45 war. Joined the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1948 from local authority (public assistance). Has a good knowledge of the Acts and Regulations and is anxious to help the staff as much as he can. Likes responsibility and is prepared to accept all he can get.

Main outside interest is cabinet-making, but his official work leaves him little time to indulge his hobby.

<i>Local Office</i>	July, 1948	—September, 1949	Benefit Supervisor.
<i>Experience:</i>	September, 1949—April, 1950		Cashier and Contributions Supervisor.
	April, 1950, onwards		Benefit Supervisor and Local Insurance Officer.
<i>Courses:</i>	May, 1956		Supervision (Refresher).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Mrs. C, Clerical Officer

Age 29 ; married ; one child. Ex-Approved Society. Joined the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1948. In Lowood Local Office since. Prefers rating to any other work and usually takes control of the Benefit Section when the Supervisor is away. Is a quick worker, but does her job in rather a mechanical way. Inclined to be quick-tempered. Tends to ask for time off to go shopping, go to the doctor, take child to the hospital for examinations, etc.

Her domestic responsibilities leave her no time for hobbies.

<i>Local Office Experience :</i>	June, 1948	—September, 1949	General Benefit Rating.
	September, 1949—September, 1951		Contributions and Credits.
	September, 1951—March, 1953		Pensions and Disablement Benefit.
	March, 1953, onwards		General Benefits.
<i>Courses :</i>	June, 1948		Sickness Benefit, Maternity Benefit and Injury Benefit.
			Contributions.
	November, 1949		Pensions.
	June, 1951		Disablement Benefit.
	February, 1952		Interviewing.
	March, 1953		Benefits (Advanced).
	May, 1955		

Miss D, Clerical Officer

Age 18. Examination entrant six months ago, since when has been employed on general benefits. Attended a New Entrants' Course at Headquarters after three months, and a Contributions Course at the Regional Training Centre a month ago. Quick worker, but liable to error. The same mistakes recur despite having her attention called to code instructions. Is vivacious and gets on well with the rest of the staff.

Her main interests in life are her tennis club and dancing.

Miss E, Clerical Officer

Age 48. Transferred to the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1947. Spent her first two years in Blackpool, then transferred at her own request to Lowood Local Office so as to live with her widowed mother. Likes to leave the office early to get home to her mother, so is allowed to come half an hour earlier to open the office post. Rather slow but very accurate. Can be relied on to do a good job but at her own pace. Can deal with Pensions and Disablement Benefit Claims. A keen staff association worker.

<i>Local Office Experience :</i>	September, 1949—September, 1951	Pensions and Disablement Benefit.
	September, 1951, onwards	Contributions.
<i>Courses :</i>	November, 1949	Pensions.
	January, 1951	Disablement Benefit.
	March, 1952	Contributions.
	February, 1953	General Benefits.

THE USE OF CASE STUDY IN THE BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE

Mr. F, Clerical Officer

Age 47 ; married. Transferred to the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1948 from Forestry Commission. Interested in pensions work, but occasionally a little too keen, asking claimants for information which is not necessary. Is anxious to get on and always willing to teach other staff pensions procedure if asked.

Interested in the Scout movement and runs a local troop.

<i>Local Office</i>	July, 1948	—March, 1951	General Benefits.
<i>Experience :</i>	March, 1951	—March, 1953	Reception.
	March, 1953, onwards		Pensions and Disablement Benefit.
<i>Courses :</i>	June, 1948		Sickness Benefit, Maternity Benefit and Injury Benefit.
	April, 1950		Disablement Benefit.
	May, 1951		Maternity Benefit and Family Allowances.
	April, 1953		Pensions.

Mr. G, Clerical Officer

Age 54 ; married. Joined the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance in 1948 from Miscellaneous Field. On rating and benefits work, he found he could not cope with the complexities of the regulations. Reasonably good as cashier, but is inclined to regard the codes, etc., as "so much red tape." Does not associate with other staff.

His chief outside interest is gardening.

<i>Local Office</i>	July, 1948	—September, 1949	Contributions.
<i>Experience :</i>	September, 1949	—September, 1951	General Benefits.
	September, 1951, onwards		Cashier.
<i>Courses :</i>	January, 1949		Contributions.
	December, 1949		General Benefits.
	November, 1951		Finance.

Mr. H, Clerical Officer

Age 40 ; married. Served in R.A.F. from 1940 to 1946, mostly overseas. Suffers from malaria. Is good at figure work. Has only a limited knowledge of many aspects of National Insurance. He makes no effort to improve his knowledge.

A keen supporter of the local football club.

<i>Local Office</i>	July, 1948	—September, 1949	Pensions.
<i>Experience :</i>	September, 1949	—September, 1951	Cashier.
	September, 1951	—March, 1953	General Benefits.
	March, 1953, onwards		Reception.
<i>Courses :</i>	April, 1949		Pensions.
	July, 1951		General Benefits.
	June, 1953		Counter Clerks.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Mr. I, Temporary Male Clerk, Grade III

Age 38 ; married. Served in Royal Artillery from 1939 to 1946. Recruited locally in 1949, and has been engaged on claims building and Postal Draft writing for all but six months of his service. From January to June, 1950, he was in the Contributions Section but asked to go back to his original work which he very much preferred. Does his job satisfactorily, but is rather slow-moving mentally and physically. Is a church organist and teaches music in his spare time.

Miss K, Temporary Woman Clerk, Grade III

Age 49. Recruited locally in 1950 for card exchange and retained under Regional Office authorisation. From June, 1950, to December, 1951, she was employed in the Contributions Section and was then transferred to her present computing duties. Very reliable worker, accurate and could do higher grade work. Is handicapped in her movements by a club-foot. Her general health is not good and she is compelled to take more sick leave than she would otherwise.

Her outside interest is church work.

Mr. L, Temporary Male Clerk, Grade III

Age 57. Recruited locally when the office opened in 1948. Was a computer until December, 1951, when he joined Contributions Section. Inclined to be argumentative. Has travelled widely in his earlier years and soon becomes reminiscent if given the chance.

No hobbies except a nightly visit of two to three hours to " Six Bells " inn.

Miss M, Typist

Age 20. Transferred to Lowood from War Pensions Issue Office, Blackpool Central Office, shortly after the merger of the Ministries of Pensions and National Insurance in 1953. Assists in other sub-clerical jobs in spare time. Good worker, keen and willing, but liable to be led away by a stronger personality. Usually has a " beau ideal "—often a film star—with frequent changes in the person of admiration.

Is keen on cycling and most week-ends goes on trips with the local club.

Mr. N

Age 35. Single. Recruited from Miscellaneous Field in May, 1948. Forceful character, keen, ambitious. Has been in a local office since he joined the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance. He has always been interested in National Insurance work and has purchased his own copies of the Acts and such regulations as he needed to carry out his duties. His somewhat overpowering personality arouses some antagonism in colleagues.

Local Office Experience :

May, 1948 —August, 1950

Sickness Benefit, Maternity Benefit and Injury Benefit.

August, 1950 —April, 1952
April, 1952 —October, 1953
October, 1953, onwards

Contributions.
Reception.

Courses :

June, 1948
November, 1950
December, 1953
November, 1954

Pensions.
New Acts.
Contributions.
Pensions.
Disablement Benefit.

QUESTION PAPERS

I

Do you consider, on the evidence before you, that Lowood National Insurance Office is working at maximum efficiency?

Are you satisfied that the staff are being used to the best advantage? Would you recommend any changes in the organisation of the work?

What would be the best lay-out of the rooms in Lowood National Insurance Office? (No major structural alterations may be made to the premises.)

II

Lowood Local Office had been hard-pressed for some time. It was the beginning of the epidemic period and sickness claims were increasing daily. Mr. A, the Manager, felt fairly confident about being able to get through the work without undue difficulty, when one of his raters, Mrs. C, fell sick with influenza and was likely to be away from the office for about a fortnight.

A day or two after this occurred, Mr. A heard from the Regional Office that, in consequence of negotiations with the Ministry of Works which had been going on for some time and in which he had participated, it had been agreed to give up one room on the ground floor of the Lowood Local Office premises to another Government Department almost immediately.

Mr. A knew that his Benefit Section had had more than ample room up to the present, and he decided to put them into Room 5 (measuring 14'9" x 13'6") on the first floor. This involved moving and rearranging the furniture, and he went to a lot of trouble and spent much time working out a new layout for the Benefit Section with Mr. B, the supervisor. The removal took place and Mr. A felt that the change would be a distinct improvement in the smooth working of the Benefit Section.

The reorganisation worked very satisfactorily for a week or so, although Mrs. C's absence meant that the remainder of the staff were carrying a fairly heavy load. Then Mr. A received a final medical certificate from Mrs. C announcing that she would be returning on the following Monday. He was relieved at this news as he was about to ask the Regional Office for permission to work overtime and her return would make this unnecessary so long as the work did not further increase.

On the Monday morning Mr. A was due to visit one of the larger employers in the area at 9.30 a.m. He went straight to this appointment from home and when he came in to the Local Office about 11.0 a.m. Mr. B was waiting to see him. He reported that Mrs. C had returned that morning and had at once protested volubly about the change in the position of her desk. She had said she was now placed near a draughty window and some way from the fire. She had been rather nasty about the whole thing. Mr. B had told her he thought she was being unreasonable. He had said that in his view her desk was no nearer a window and no farther from the fire than it had been before, that she was being a little childish, and that she would soon get used to the new arrangement. Besides it was impossible to "start moving everything all over again."

Mrs. C had listened to Mr. B in silence. She had gone back to her desk but half an hour afterwards she had come to Mr. B to say she felt ill and was going home. She had put on her hat and coat and left the office.

If you were the Local Office Manager how would you set about solving this problem?

In your reply analyse the reasons why this problem arose and say what guiding principles of staff management, if any, can be derived from it.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

III

Mr. F, the Clerical Officer on pensions work in Lowood National Insurance Office, was recently successful at a promotions board for Executive Officer. Mr. A felt that Mr. F might soon be posted away from Lowood and so took steps to train a replacement. He chose Miss E, who had had some experience of pensions work as an understudy for Mr. F, and to whom he had more or less promised the job should Mr. F leave.

Miss E's training was almost complete when an Executive Officer vacancy occurred in a nearby office. Mr. F applied for the job and got it. Mr. A was told by the Regional Office that some new entrant Clerical Officers were expected shortly but for the present a Clerical Officer would be lent from Midwood National Insurance Office, a Senior Executive Officer office not far off with a staff of 50.

Mr. F was due to leave on a Saturday and for the weeks preceding, Miss E had been working with him part-time and then took over on the following Monday. On that day the Clerical Officer from Midwood, Mr. N, reported on "detached duty." He had done all jobs in Midwood National Insurance Office but had lately been on pensions work, of which he is very fond and on which he regards himself as a bit of an expert. He lives rather nearer to Lowood than to Midwood and his daily journey to Lowood is easier than to Midwood.

Mr. A saw Mr. N, who made it apparent that he did not relish the temporary transfer. After hearing of his experience at Midwood National Insurance Office, Mr. A told him that he was to go on contributions work. N did not like the idea at all, but consoled himself with the remark, "Thank goodness it's only for a limited period." He did not settle down to his work at all well. He made it quite clear that he regarded contributions work as much inferior to pensions and well below his capabilities. His work, which was satisfactory to start with, began to fall off gradually in quality and quantity after a few weeks, as no sign of his return to Midwood was forthcoming. Mr. B noticed this but thought he would not intervene for the moment, fearing an explosion if he did. The office was not especially busy and he hoped N would pull round. In addition Miss E on pensions was doing extremely well at her job.

This had gone on for about two months when N received a notice from the Regional Office saying that he had been permanently posted to Lowood National Insurance Office. He also learned that the complement of Midwood National Insurance Office had been revised and a Clerical Officer post abolished, and that he was the first in order of transfer in accordance with the rules. The card exchange was then about to begin and N was in charge of it, assisted by a Temporary Clerk, Grade III, Mr. L.

A week later Mr. B reported to the Manager that he was very worried about the card exchange. It was progressing very slowly and seemed likely to take much longer than usual.

As the Manager of Lowood National Insurance Office, how would you tackle this problem? In your answer, analyse the reasons why the problem arose and say what guiding principles of staff management, if any, can be drawn from it.

IV

Mr. H makes a point of taking his full quota of uncertified sick leave each year on the grounds of his recurrent malaria. Usually his absence is limited to one or two days, often coinciding with the holding of some sporting event in the vicinity, e.g., a football match or race meeting. During these absences he has been seen, by other members of the staff, working in his garden. This naturally gives rise

THE USE OF CASE STUDY IN THE BRITISH CIVIL SERVICE

to discontent and resentment among the staff. One or two have been heard to say: "I don't see why I shouldn't wangle an extra day or two. Mr. H seems to get away with it."

You have called Mr. H to your office and told him of the feelings of the staff. Before you can continue he remarks: "Oh! Well, if that's all you're worrying about I can always go to the doctor and get a certificate." This, having regard to his health, he can quite easily do.

How do you continue and what else would you do? What basic principles are involved in this problem?

V

Quite recently, Miss M made a casual remark to Miss D—in Mr. G's hearing—which revealed to him that she must have listened to a private conversation he had held that morning.

Mr. G became extremely angry about it, and immediately went to the Manager, complaining bitterly and vehemently. In the heat of the moment, he demanded:

- (a) A written apology from Miss M; and
- (b) That the Manager should report the incident to the Regional Office with a recommendation that Miss M should be suspended while further disciplinary action was being considered.

After he had gone, the Manager sent for Miss M and asked for her version of the incident. She became very tearful and said she realised she had been wrong to mention what she had heard to another member of the staff, and she had done so unthinkingly. She alleged that Mr. G was in the habit of making long private telephone calls and that it was often necessary for her to break in on them because other members of the staff were waiting to use the line. She said she could not always avoid hearing odd snatches of conversation. She offered to apologise orally to Mr. G, but thought he was making a great deal of bother over very little and was unreasonable to demand an apology in writing. She was not prepared to accede to that demand and would sooner lose her job.

When Miss M had returned to her room, the Manager decided to interview Mr. G again. He told Mr. G that Miss M was repentant and that she was prepared to apologise orally, adding that he (the Manager) personally felt that such action would meet the situation without incurring loss of face to anyone concerned. Mr. G replied that nothing less than a written apology and an undertaking not to eavesdrop in future would satisfy him. Furthermore, unless he had this very soon, he was determined to take the matter elsewhere, either to the Regional Office direct or to his Staff Association.

Is there any action which you, as the Manager, would have taken to avoid this situation arising? What would you do about it now it has arisen?

What lessons can be learned from this problem?

VI

If you took the place of the Benefits Supervisor, Mr. B, what would you consider to be the best division of the work between Mrs. C, Miss D, Mr. I and Miss K? What would be the best layout of the necessary furniture (desks, chairs, cabinets, cupboards, etc.) in Rooms 4 and 5?

Mr. A retired three weeks ago. The new Manager, Mr. O, has told you (the Supervisor) that he thinks the existing layout of the office could be improved;

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

for instance, callers have sometimes walked into his room (No. 1) and interrupted his work. He has suggested that he should move to Room 4. Reception would then be in Room 1, Benefits would move to Rooms 2 and 3 and the Inspector to Room 5.

Mr. O has also said that if the layout is altered, there would be an opportunity for any desirable changes of duty among the staff.

He would like to have your views on both questions.

Reporting to Parliament on the Nationalised Industries

By RAYMOND NOTTAGE

After surveying the size and content of the Annual Reports of the Boards of the Nationalised Industries, the Director of the Royal Institute suggests a number of changes which he considers would improve the usefulness of the Reports to Parliament.

NEARLY a decade has now passed since the nationalisation of some of the country's major industries. Parliament is still not satisfied, however, that it is as fully informed of the activities of these industries as it should be, and that it is in a position to judge whether they are being well run or not.

This uncertainty could arise from two causes. One, because the industries have not so far been successful in effectively communicating information to Parliament. The other, because it is difficult to assess the performance of major industries in public ownership. The Annual Reports which the nationalised industries are required to submit to Ministers, and which they, in turn, must lay before Parliament, throw up both these questions in an acute and related form.

The framers of the nationalisation statutes no doubt expected the submission of the Annual Reports to be one of the principal methods of keeping Parliament abreast of the achievements and plans of the great industries that were being brought into public ownership. Over the past ten years, many hundreds of man-hours and many thousands of pounds must have been spent in compiling and producing these Reports. But apparently the Reports submitted have not given Parliament satisfaction. In 1952 and 1953, Select Committees were appointed "to consider the present methods by which the House of Commons is informed of the affairs of the Nationalised Industries and to report what changes, having regard to the provisions laid down by Parliament in the relevant statutes, may be desirable in these methods." Two Reports emerged. One concentrated on Questions to Ministers. The other recommended the establishment of a Standing Committee of the House on the Nationalised Industries. The following comment, in the Select Committee's Report to the House of Commons on 23rd July, 1953, is the only reference to the Annual Reports:

"The Nationalised Industries publish voluminous reports, but these do not completely meet the needs of Parliament or the public, partly owing to their sheer volume and complexity, and partly because information is not necessarily available on the matters on which it is required or when it is required."

This, if it sums up Parliament's attitude to the Annual Reports that have been submitted over the past decade, is not a satisfactory outcome, either for Parliament or for the industries themselves.

What has been done to meet these twin evils of "sheer volume" and of "complexity" to which attention was drawn in 1953? The following

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

table compares the sizes of the Reports and Annual Accounts issued for 1951-52, with those issued during 1956 by the Boards which will come within the purview of the Select Committee on Nationalised Industries, the establishment of which was approved by the House of Commons on 29th November, 1956.

TABLE 1

Boards	1951-52 pages	1955-56 pages
British European Airways	105	88
British Overseas Airways Corporation	68	61
National Coal Board*	263	(I) 63 (II) 143
Central Electricity Authority	271	244
Area Electricity Boards	536	632
South of Scotland (S.E.)	30	} 54
Electricity Boards (S.W.)	39	
North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board	59	71
The Gas Council	169	189
Area Gas Boards	804	897
British Transport Commission* (I)	169	88
(II)	252	266
	<u>2,765</u>	<u>2,796</u>
*The N.C.B. and the B.T.C. now submit two volumes each year, a Report (I) and the Accounts and Statistics (II).		

The number of pages placed before Parliament thus remains about the same in total. The electricity and gas industries have increased the sizes of their contributions, and have both now passed the 1,000 pages a year mark, the gas industry by a comfortable margin.

The National Coal Board, however, have clearly tried to meet the Select Committee's criticism. They have separated the Report from the Accounts and Statistics, and have made a conscious effort to produce a smaller Report. In the first paragraph of the Report for 1953 the Board stated :

" This Report, like most of its predecessors, is designed to do two things —to give an account of the main happenings in the British coal industry during the year, and also to bring to public notice particular subjects of special significance for the industry's present or future. . . . This year, the Board have reduced the length of the purely narrative passages in the hope that this change will be an advantage."

The British Transport Commission have halved the size of their Report, but the volume containing the Accounts and Statistics remains about the

same. The Reports of the Airways Corporations show only a small reduction in length.

THE STATUTORY PROVISIONS

How far do these voluminous and complex Reports result from obligations which Parliament itself has placed on the nationalised industries? An examination of the statutory provisions shows that all the Boards listed in Table 1 are required to submit an Annual Report to the responsible Minister, and generally to do so as soon as possible after the end of each financial year.

The Airways Corporations and the Scottish Electricity Boards are required to deal only with the preceding year's operations, but all the others must report each year on their "policy and programmes" as well. The Ministers responsible for the Electricity and Gas Boards may specify the forms of those Boards' Reports. None of the other Boards, however, is covered by a statutory provision of this sort.

The basic statutes require the responsible Ministers to lay all the Annual Reports before Parliament. With those for Central Electricity Authority, the Area Electricity Boards (in England and Wales), The Gas Council and the Area Gas Boards (including Scotland), however, the Minister must lay, at the same time, "a report with respect to the exercise of his functions during that year under this Act."

The legislation therefore divides the Boards into :

- (i) *Boards whose Annual Reports may be determined in form by the Minister ; and must be accompanied on submission to Parliament by "a report with respect to the exercise of his functions during that year under this Act."*

Central Electricity Authority and the Area Electricity Boards.

The Gas Council and the Area Gas Boards.

- (ii) *Boards whose Annual Reports are not subject to either of the requirements set out in (i) :*

The Airways Corporations.

The National Coal Board.

The British Transport Commission.

The two Scottish Electricity Boards fall between these two categories. The Secretary of State may specify the form of the Annual Reports, but is not required to report on the exercise of his own functions when submitting them to Parliament.

The Minister's Annual Reports

The question naturally arises whether Parliament has fared better under the one system than the other, and this must lead to an examination of the way in which the Minister of Power has discharged his own duty to report to Parliament. Such an enquiry immediately reveals the notable brevity

of the Minister's reports, which over the years have contained the following numbers of pages :

TABLE 2
Annual Reports by the Minister of Power to Parliament

	On Electricity	On Gas
1949 ..	17	—
1950 ..	9	13
1951 ..	6	9
1952 ..	8	8
1953 ..	10	5
1954 ..	11	7
1955 ..	12	10
1956 ..	11	10

The Minister's Reports have so far been mainly devoted to recording in the most formal way the actions taken by him under the main statutes governing the electricity and gas industries. They record the appointments he has made to the Boards and to the Consultative Councils, the consents he has given under his financial powers, the compulsory purchase orders he has confirmed, and the statutory instruments he has made. The Electricity Reports deal briefly with a number of matters relating to public safety, and the Gas Reports contain a section on the measures taken to ensure satisfactory standards of gas supply. Reference is made to some of the major policy questions which are subject to the Minister's approval, and on these the following extracts are not altogether untypical :

"The Minister further received a report on education and training programmes for the year 1st January, 1952, to 31st December, 1952, and gave his formal approval to the programme described in the report" (*Electricity Report, 1954*).

"15. *Research*. In accordance with Section 3 of the Act, The Gas Council settled a general programme of research for the year in consultation with the Minister" (*Gas Report, 1956*).

Under the heading "General Policy" the Gas Reports have usually had about half a page, and the Electricity Reports sometimes a little more, sometimes nothing at all. These brief passages describe the broad trend of national fuel policy at the time, and the ways by which the Minister is seeking to ensure that the industry concerned will conform to it.

These Reports presented by the Minister of Power contain little information which is not already available elsewhere, and it is difficult to see what real benefit they confer on Parliament. Certainly, on the basis

of the Reports so far submitted, Parliament is unlikely to demand similar Reports from Ministers for the other industries. The Minister of Power has not yet fully grasped the opportunity to enlighten Parliament, by written report, on the exercise of his own functions under the various statutes. Has he, however, made up for this by the skilful exercise of his powers in regard to the form of the Annual Reports which he has statutory authority to specify? Have these been moulded nearer to the heart's desire of the heavily-burdened Member of Parliament?

Unhappily, it will be seen from Table 1 that most of the Annual Reports whose form the Minister of Power can determine have grown larger, while those for which Ministers have no specific obligation have tended to become smaller. In the light of the Select Committee's comment this is, indeed, an ironical development.

Reports on Long-Term Plans

A curious anomaly has resulted from the insistence in the statutes on *Annual Reports*. Periodically, the nationalised industries draw up long-term plans and are required to submit them to the responsible Ministers for approval. These are, by their nature, probably the most important documents prepared by the Boards. Their proposals concern an aggregate capital expenditure of several thousand million pounds, and involve basic assumptions of the most far-reaching importance in their effects both on the national economy and on the operational efficiency of the industries themselves.

These vital documents are not presented to Parliament. They are referred to briefly in the *Annual Reports* of the industries concerned. At the most a summary of the proposals is given in a page or two, and mention is made that the plan has been published separately, as in the National Coal Board's *Annual Report* for 1951 (page 18). The Gas Council, however, recorded in their 1953/54 Report only that the Area Boards had submitted programmes, which the Council had endorsed and the Minister had approved. No information was given about the programmes themselves, or where details of them could be ascertained.

The publications which have been issued about the long-term plans of the major industries are as follows:

Plan for Coal. Published October, 1950, by the National Coal Board, price 3s. 6d.

Investing in Coal—Progress and Prospects under the Plan for Coal. Published April, 1956, by the National Coal Board, price 3s.

Power and Prosperity, a popular version of British Electricity Authority's programme of development. Published February, 1954, by British Electricity Authority, price 1s.

Fuel for the Nation: The Gas Industry's Programme (a popular version). Published May, 1954, by The Gas Council, price 1s.

Modernisation and Re-equipment of British Railways. Published January, 1955, by the British Transport Commission, price 3s. 6d.

Canals and Inland Waterways: Report of the Board of Survey. Published April, 1955, by the British Transport Commission, price 8s. 6d.

The position seems to be, therefore, that the National Coal Board and the British Transport Commission have published their plans in the form in which they were submitted to the Ministers, that the electricity and gas industries have incorporated the substance of their programmes in popular documents, and that Parliament has received really very scanty information about these matters in Parliamentary papers. And, it will be noted, these are the plans of the Boards that are specifically required to cover in their Annual Reports their "policy and programmes" as well as their operations during the preceding year.

One exception must be noted to this general picture. The Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation submitted to Parliament in October, 1956, a Memorandum prepared by the British Transport Commission and entitled "Review of Policy and Prospects with Special Reference to the Railways." It constituted an annex to the White Paper setting out the Government's *Proposals for the Railways* (Cmd. 9880). This was not part of a normal procedure, however. It came about only because of the Government's decision to make the British Transport Commission a series of special advances up to a total of about £250 million to tide the Commission over their financial difficulties during the early years of their modernisation plan for the railways. Had the Minister and the Commission not required Parliamentary approval for that financial transaction, this long-term review would not have been submitted to Parliament.

Conclusion

So much, then, for the statutory obligations in regard to the Annual Reports. Although not uniform, they are on the whole simple and straightforward, and Parliament certainly cannot be accused of having provoked "voluminousness" and "complexity" by legislation. These characteristics might conceivably be caused by the natures of the industries concerned, but, since most of the Boards are single-purpose undertakings operating entirely within the United Kingdom, this seems unlikely.

All told, therefore, one may reasonably conclude that Annual Reports are the products of administrative decision. They are what they are because the Boards, and perhaps Ministers to some extent, have chosen to make them so. Essentially, they are a reflection of the Boards' general concept of their public duty, a duty to report to Parliament fully and in generous detail.

THE PRESENT VARIETY OF FORM AND CONTENT

The Reports of the major Boards show substantial variations in their structure, in the viewpoints from which they are written, and in the nature of their contents. The British Transport Commission, for example, begin their Report for 1955 with a chapter entitled "Main Features," covering broad issues which were of particular concern to the Commission during the year. Chapter 2 deals with "Manpower," Chapter 3 with "Development," and it is only towards the latter part of the Report that the preceding year's operations are reported in detail. By contrast, the National Coal Board and British Overseas Airways Corporation set out the results of the last year's

activities in some detail at the beginning of the Reports, and deal with some of the broad policy questions later.

The Gas Council follow the British Transport Commission in relegating a good many of the details of the previous year's operations to the latter part of the Report. A feature of The Gas Council's Report, however, is the priority accorded to the accounts. In other Reports, finance, apart from a brief reference to the major results, tends to be placed further back.

Research has a chapter to itself in The Gas Council's Report, but in the other Reports this subject is dealt with more briefly and included under the broader heading of technical progress and development.

The National Coal Board end their Report for 1955 with a chapter "Coal of the Future." The British Transport Commission, as mentioned, deal with "Development" in Chapter 3. Neither Central Electricity Authority nor The Gas Council have a special chapter devoted to future policies. Their Reports record the past and state plans for the future on particular aspects of their activities, looking backwards and forwards by turn as they go along.

All the Boards present their accounts and statistical returns as appendices to their Reports. The National Coal Board and the British Transport Commission issue their Reports in a separate volume from their accounts and statistics, but Central Electricity Authority and The Gas Council publish theirs together. This means that the National Coal Board's Report can be purchased on its own for 3s., but Central Electricity Authority's has to be bought as part of a larger volume for 10s. 6d. Central Electricity Authority and The Gas Council print summaries of their Reports at the beginning, but the South of Scotland Electricity Board put theirs at the end.

Central Electricity Authority and The Gas Council express their operational results in text and, for the most part, compare them only with the previous year's. The National Coal Board and British Overseas Airways Corporation display theirs in tables placed prominently at the beginning of the Reports, and show trends over the period of the last nine years.

The Airways Corporations use a large number of simple charts, drawn in modern style, to explain the salient statistics of their operations (B.E.A. in two-colour printing). This device is employed to a very much smaller degree by the other Boards, and where it is the diagrams are perhaps not always so attractive in appearance.

Staff Numbers

There is a surprising degree of inconsistency in the amount of information given regarding staff numbers. The current practices of the main Boards can be summarised in the following way:

- (i) *In detail by organisational function.* British European Airways is the only Board to give really detailed figures about the deployment of its staff. Its total of 10,200 employees is broken down into 80 groups. The British Transport Commission's staff statistics are given in fair detail, and a feature of them is that they are shown throughout by sex as well as by organisational function. No other Board deem this necessary. For the gas industry the staff are shown in 13 main categories for operatives and three for administrative, technical, etc., grades.

(ii) *Under the main branches of the national machinery for the negotiation of terms and conditions of employment.* This is the classification used by Central Electricity Authority and the South of Scotland Electricity Board. It has only five categories, each of which is inevitably very broad and gives very little indication of the types of work on which the staffs are employed.

(iii) *Totals only.* British Overseas Airways Corporation and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board follow this practice.

(iv) *Weekly wage earners only.* The National Coal Board gives a good deal of statistical information about colliery and ancillary workers, but no indication of the numbers of administrative and technical staff and the manner of their deployment.

Can such a high degree of variety be justified?

Technical Information

The Reports vary a good deal in the amount of purely technical information they include. Central Electricity Authority tend to assume that the readers of their Reports will have a good grounding in a variety of forms of engineering and state in their latest Report, for example, that :

"Tests of specimens cut from a welded pipe joint of chromium molybdenum vanadium steel indicate that satisfactory welds of adequate creep strength can be made under site conditions with pipes of this material . . ." (para. 114).

"Cold-reduced grain oriented steel is being increasingly used in the smaller sizes of generator transformers" (para. 116).

Other Boards do not generally go into such severely technical detail.

Statistical Data

Inevitably the Boards must use a large number of figures in their Reports, and one finds marked variations in the way in which these are presented. The National Coal Board, by employing large units of measurement, e.g., a million tons of coal and a thousand men, are able to keep most of their numbers to four digits. Thus they report that coal output in 1955 was 221.6 million tons. By contrast, B.O.A.C. measure their performance in small units and report that in 1955-56 they flew 260,286,387 ton/miles. Central Electricity Authority also favour the small unit of measurement and, if necessary, the six to eight digit number, but they round up to the nearest thousand or hundred thousand, thus characterising their Reports by a profusion of 0s, e.g. : "This represents a net addition of some 8,400,000 kilowatts of output capacity, from 18,800,000 kilowatts at the end of 1955 to 27,200,000 at the end of 1961."

A kindred problem is the degree of detail into which regular statistics need go. Some of the statistical tables published by the National Coal Board give monthly details and these, coupled with a Divisional classification as well, produce a mass of data which is quite forbidding in appearance. Most Boards, however, confine themselves to statistics on an annual basis, either by giving an average or quoting those for a particular date each year.

The Accounts

The Accounts which the major Boards submit, most of them in very great, and perhaps overwhelming, detail, are broadly consistent in form. There are, however, one or two variations to be noted.

The National Coal Board print in front of their formal Accounts four pages of summarised financial results for the years 1947-55, and are the only Board to publish a long-range financial summary in detail. The other Boards generally give only the preceding year's figures for comparison.

Details of the Boards' expenditures are generally on an objective basis, stating the purpose for which the money was spent, e.g., generation of electricity, maintenance and depreciation of rolling stock, employees' welfare. The National Coal Board, however, also show their expenditure on a subjective basis, i.e., wages, payments for stores, etc. Central Electricity Authority give a broad breakdown of the industry's total revenue of £380m on the same basis (Appendix 1 of the Report), but do not distinguish between the Central Authority and the Area Boards, for which the proportions must be very different. B.E.A. include a diagram showing the percentages of each £1 spent which go to wages, fuel, fuel tax, etc. The other Boards do not publish such an analysis of their expenditure, and it is not always possible to extract this information from their Accounts.

The Gas Council give numerous details of British Gas Stock, together with the benefits this Stock has conferred and the obligations it has imposed on the Area Boards. These tables take up nearly 20 pages. The National Coal Board print an extended summary, covering 15 pages, of the major capital schemes which have been authorised and are estimated to cost more than £250,000. None of the other Boards deal with matters of this sort in such detail.

Some Boards place the Revenue Account before the Balance Sheet, while others use the reverse order. Some precede the main Accounts with the Auditors' Report and the Notes on the Accounts, while others put them the other way round. Although these are only minor points, the layman might perhaps be forgiven for thinking that there ought to be one order which was indisputably the best.

Miscellaneous

The Reports vary in the extent to which they give information on one or two particular points. For example, on education and training some Boards merely say that they appreciate the value of good practices in these matters, and are following them, while others state the numbers of employees who have attended particular courses during the period under review.

B.O.A.C. describe their fleet of aircraft by type and number, and take merely half a page to do so. B.E.A., however, require four pages for theirs, because they publish details of each aircraft, including its registration number, its name, the date acquired, hours flown to the last date of the Report, and the hours flown in the year covered by the Report. Listed in the latest B.E.A. Report are 24 planes on order and not yet delivered.

Finally, the Airways Corporations print at the beginning of their Reports

definitions of terms they will be using, e.g., capacity ton mile and load factor. None of the other Boards do this. The National Coal Board and Central Electricity Authority include indexes at the back of their Reports. The Gas Council and the British Transport Commission, whose Reports are of similar sizes, do not.

The Area Boards' Reports

Variety of treatment is not confined to the Reports of the major Boards. It is also to be found in full measure among the Reports of the Area Electricity Boards and of the Area Gas Boards, organisations which within each industry are charged with exactly the same responsibilities.

A survey of the lists of contents of the Reports of the Area Electricity Boards immediately illustrates how great is this variety in the electricity industry. The topics dealt with vary a good deal, and there is no uniform order or style of exposition. Some Reports are written in chapters with sub-headings. Others have no chapters, but only paragraph headings. The Southern Electricity Board does not publish a Contents List in the usual form, but a short alphabetical index starting:

	Para.
Aluminium—Use of Conductors	18
Board Membership.. .. .	1 and 2

The Report of the Yorkshire Electricity Board has a detailed alphabetical index covering four pages as its contents list, an index which would be appropriate and valuable at the end, but gives no idea of the form of the Report which one is about to read.

The Reports vary in the number of appendices they include and in the use they make of diagrams. Some Boards publish brief reports on each of the Districts within their Area, but most do not.

Much of what has been said about the Reports of the Area Electricity Boards applies to the Reports of the Area Gas Boards. The latter are, however, all written with main chapters and sub-headings, and none of them includes Sub-Area reports as do some of the Electricity Boards.

Is Such Diversity Desirable?

With the establishment of so many new Boards at about the same time, it was no doubt inevitable (unless the Government took drastic action to prevent it) that their Annual Reports should be constructed and presented in a variety of ways. Indeed, plenty of freedom to experiment was very desirable in the first few years. But is the resulting great diversity a sign that the best methods so far evolved have still to gain universal acceptance? Equally important—what is the effect of this diversity on Parliament? The answer to the first question, on the basis of the foregoing evidence, seems to suggest that the best methods could be more widely used than they are at present. With regard to the second, it seems probable that the present variations are not helpful to the M.P. faced each year with 2,800 pages in 32 Reports on half a dozen major industries, and that they hinder him in readily ascertaining the information he needs to acquire and in comprehending

its significance. In short, these variations are probably one of the basic causes of the complexity of which the Select Committee complained.

If, therefore, the Annual Report is to become a more powerful instrument than hitherto for conveying essential information to Parliament and in helping to create among Members an assurance that they know how the Nationalised Industries are being run, a more systematised and less heterogeneous form of reporting may have to be devised. Certainly it seems worth considering what lessons can be learned from past experience and whether a standard pattern of Report would be both practicable and desirable.

TO WHOM SHOULD ANNUAL REPORTS BE ADDRESSED?

First, one must be quite clear on the audience for whom the formal Annual Report is to be designed. Is it the Minister to whom the Report has to be submitted, or is it Parliament to whom he must present it? Or is the presentation of the Annual Report to Parliament to be regarded primarily as a device for making a document available to the general public, or those members of it who are especially interested in public enterprise? The needs of these three audiences may well be different, and it is highly improbable that one Report will fit them all.

The Minister can perhaps be eliminated to start with. He will already know a great deal about an industry for which he has certain responsibilities to Parliament, and the submission to him of the formal Annual Report will generally do little to augment his knowledge. Moreover, he can always call for information on any matters on which he may be specially interested. The present Reports no doubt provide convenient works of reference for Ministry officials (and also, incidentally, for the Boards' own officers), but this clearly should not be a paramount consideration in determining their form and content.

The general public constitutes an audience of widely differing demands, indeed, a whole series of audiences. It is to be doubted, therefore, whether a single document could ever satisfy them all, and the Boards would hardly be justified in making the attempt. Other means must be employed to give the various sections of the general public the information they would like to have.

Because, therefore, Parliament is by statute the ultimate destination, and also for the reasons indicated above, it seems evident that the Reports should be designed exclusively for the benefit of Parliament. Such Reports would, of course, be of interest to a wider audience, but it would not be right to jeopardise their usefulness to Parliament by amplifying and complicating them to meet the special needs of those for whom they are not intended.

If it be agreed that Parliament constitutes the audience for whom the Annual Reports should be prepared, one has to ask whether they should be framed so as to meet the needs of the largest number of Members, or to provide the maximum information for the relatively small number of Members who take a special interest in the nationalised industries. The chances are that it will not be possible to do both at the same time. For the former purpose a short report will be required highlighting the salient features of

the industry's activities ; for the latter something much more detailed and weighty, which may well dismay the majority of Members

Parliament has never made its wishes known on this issue. It is clear, however, that the nationalised industries have so far tried to satisfy the keen and earnest student of their affairs. But their efforts have met with a good deal of Parliamentary indifference, and the Boards would now seem well justified in changing their policy and in seeking in future to try and interest the largest number of Members. The National Coal Board and the British Transport Commission have already proceeded to some extent in this direction.

The Annual Report for Parliament should not, however, become merely a simplified tabloid, possibly abusing the need for brevity by omitting the less convenient facts. On the contrary, what is required is the proper selection of all the most important material, its presentation in the most skilful way to facilitate comprehension and to reveal its true significance, and the elimination of material of only subsidiary importance. Further, if short Annual Reports were submitted to Parliament it would not mean that the information for which there was no place in these Reports could not be published. It is, indeed, very desirable that all the information the specialists need should be made available to them, but this could well be done through other media such as the Central Statistical Office, regular or special publications of the Boards themselves, and the publications of reputable professional and learned societies. A bibliography of such material could be included in the Annual Report as a means of directing the specialist to the information he may require, and without needlessly burdening the reader with a more general interest.

BASIC PURPOSES OF THE ANNUAL REPORT

Given that the short Report would have much to commend it, how could it in fact be achieved without depriving Parliament of information it should have? A clearer understanding of the purposes which an Annual Report can and should serve would perhaps contribute to this end. It is apparent that in varying degrees the existing Reports are used to :

- (a) Provide a record.
- (b) Report compliance with statutory obligation.
- (c) Assess the industry's efficiency.
- (d) Disseminate general information about the organisation.
- (e) Improve staff morale.
- (f) Publicise the industry or some of its services.

There can be little doubt that the Report to Parliament should strictly avoid the inclusion of material that is primarily intended to raise staff morale or to "sell" the industry to the public. A Report with a good record of achievement may, in fact, do both, but it should do so incidentally and not be deliberately designed to this end.

An Annual Report must certainly be a document of record, and it is also obviously appropriate to use it to inform Parliament that statutory

obligations are being, or have been, complied with. With regard to this compliance, however, the question arises whether Parliament need be told of it every year. For example, the Boards are required to establish machinery for negotiation and consultation on matters concerning conditions of employment and on other matters of mutual interest to the Boards and their employees. Clearly, once such machinery has been introduced, reference to it hardly seems necessary in the Annual Reports unless significant changes take place in any year.

An Annual Report's most important purpose, it is submitted, is to enable Parliament to make an assessment of the efficiency with which the industry is being run, and to this purpose all other considerations should generally be heavily subordinated. In the pursuit of this particular objective, information about the form of organisation and current policies may be necessary. If, however, the Report is to be kept brief, such information must be carefully selected and must be truly relevant to the prime purpose of the Report. Further, through the manner in which the information is presented, its significance must be made patently clear.

CONSIDERATIONS IN DESIGNING A STANDARD PATTERN

What, then, would be a suitable form of Report to facilitate Parliament's task in making some assessment of an industry's efficiency? The first point to consider is whether a sharp division should not be made between past results and policies for the future. Such a distinction would seem to be justified, because in any effort to assess efficiency, it is necessary to ask the two questions: "Have past results been good?" and "Will current policies secure the best results over, say, the next ten or twenty years?"

Closely related to these questions is the extent to which the Report should describe ends and means. It is reasonable to assume that any industry that could demonstrate to Parliament that its past record was outstandingly good would not need to go into great detail about the means it employed. The ends achieved would be sufficiently eloquent in themselves. When a past record does not show such a result, some reasons and explanations, all of which may be perfectly valid, are necessary and justified. This does not imply, however, that all the means employed in running the industry must be laid bare.

When, however, one comes to consider the question of future efficiency, one is thrown entirely into the realm of the means to be employed. Reference may certainly be made to current and recent experience. This will often be a good guide to the future, but it may not be infallible and the extent to which it will need modification will always have to be considered.

In the cause of clear and logical exposition, therefore, it is suggested that a distinction between past results and policies for the future has much to commend it, and one of the important supporting reasons for this distinction is that it helps to secure a proper balance between the records of ends and of means. The National Coal Board, it is to be noted, already employ this form to some extent.

If this suggestion is accepted, the next question to be decided is the information that should be included in the record of past results. Here

the Reports of the National Coal Board and British Overseas Airways Corporation give a lead. Both these Boards set out in tabular form at the beginning of their latest Reports salient operational indices and the financial results for the last year and also for the eight preceding years. One feels that in tables of this sort the reader can get the quintessential story of these industries, and in a way that would never be practicable by a report in text.

If this is so, it would be a service to Parliament if every Board printed at the beginning of its Annual Reports a summary of its operational results, in tabular form, as do the N.C.B. and B.O.A.C. Such a summary, it is suggested, could usefully follow these precepts:

- (a) It should start with details of the physical operations.
- (b) It should proceed in a logical order, e.g., an order of descending magnitude of importance.
- (c) It should end with the financial results, which are the consequences of the physical operations.
- (d) It should provide adequate comparisons with past years so as to reveal long-term trends.

For some Boards the production of such tables would involve little more than the collation of material already included in the Reports. For others, however, it might demonstrate that the information at present placed before Parliament is not as complete as it could usefully be.

THE SELECTION AND PRESENTATION OF INDICES

A reasonable way of selecting the operational indices would be to try and provide the essential information to answer the three following questions:

- (a) Quantity of output—is it sufficient?
- (b) Quality of output—is it adequate?
- (c) Real cost of product—is it being reduced, and at a fast enough rate?

For some industries it would not be necessary to prepare elaborate indices to answer the first two questions. It is a matter of common knowledge, for example, that the gas supply is generally adequate and that, except in the very coldest weather, the electricity supply maintains its standard voltage and frequency. The more general publication of indices to measure the adequacy of the service being provided, both in terms of quantity and quality, would be helpful, however. For example, the Airways Corporations might indicate their latest accident rates and the trends of these over recent years. At the moment they publish no regular index of this important quality factor in their services.¹

¹The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation publish "Statistics of accidents on regular passenger-carrying services of U.K. operators" in an annual publication, *A Survey of the Accidents to Aircraft of the U.K.* (H.M.S.O.). They include such indices as passengers carried per passenger killed, passenger miles flown per passenger killed, and fatal accidents per 10,000 stage flights, all per year. No figures are given, however, for individual operators. The U.S. Civil Aeronautics Board publish similar information to that issued by the Ministry.

REPORTING TO PARLIAMENT ON THE NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES

The Non-Financial Index

With regard to indices of cost, it is desirable that these should be given as far as possible in physical terms and no more than is necessary in money terms. The first reason for this is that in a time of persistent inflation, such as we have experienced since the last War, it is extremely difficult to appreciate the significance of the trend of financial costs, and to decide the allowance to be made in any particular case for the decline in the value of money. The second reason is that physical indices can often be prepared with much less trouble than those expressed in money terms and are, in fact, frequently the bases from which financial costings are derived—with a good deal of labour and expense.

The coal industry provides a good illustration of the advantage of the non-financial index. The following table shows the labour cost of a ton of coal in work and in money terms for the years 1951 and 1955 in comparison with 1947, the first year of public ownership of the coal industry :

Cost Per Ton	1947	1951	1955
Man-hours ¹	7.45	6.61	6.53
Money ²	26s. 10d.	32s. 1d.	41s. 7d.

The work index shows that there was a perceptible increase in labour efficiency between 1947 and 1951, but that the progress since then has been only slight. The money index shows a continuing and substantial decrease in labour efficiency, unless one subjects it to certain adjustments. Given the money index alone, how much should be allowed for (i) the general decline in the value of money, and (ii) the higher bid that has to be made for mining labour in conditions of stable full employment? An estimate can be made for the first—albeit a rough one—but the second involves a highly imponderable factor. One could never, in trying to assess the trend of efficiency of labour in the coal industry, produce through financial indices an answer which has anything like the certainty and validity of the index of output per manshift or per man-year.

The Ingredients of Production

All the industries being considered in this article have three principal ingredients of production: Men, Machines and Materials. It would be reasonable, therefore, for each industry, in selecting and developing its

¹The costs in man-hours have been computed from the "tons per manshift" figures for all workers given on page 3 of the N.C.B. Report for 1955. A manshift, which is statutorily defined as "7½ hours plus one winding time," has been taken as an average of 8 hours. The figures shown are thus 8 ÷ tons per manshift.

²The costs in money have been computed from the average earnings per manshift worked (all ages)—including the value of allowances in kind, details of which were published for 1947 in Table 37 of the 1948 Report, and for 1951 and 1955 in Tables 38 and 28, respectively, of the Annual Reports for those years. The figures shown are average earnings per manshift ÷ tons per manshift for all workers.

indices of real cost, to try and demonstrate the efficiency with which each of the ingredients of production is being used.

Men

An example has already been given from the coal industry indicating the value of an index measuring men's work.

Attention has also been drawn to the variation in detail of the numbers of staff employed. What is needed, generally, is an analysis of staff according to the work which they perform, and an indication of the volume of output achieved within each of those functions. Indeed, it should surely be the duty of the Boards not only to develop work measurement to a substantial degree for purposes of internal management, but also to report to Parliament the most important work measurement indices they normally use. The National Coal Board, it has been indicated, publish some such indices, as do B.O.A.C. and British European Airways. Most of the Boards, however, could usefully present a good deal more information of this sort than they do.

Machines

An important index in measuring the effectiveness of the utilisation of machines is the "load factor," which is broadly the ratio of remunerative work obtained from a machine to that which might have been secured if the machine could have been employed to the maximum possible extent. It is used by the Airways Corporations to show the load-ton-miles carried to the capacity-ton-miles offered, and for both corporations is now about 62 per cent. It is used in the electricity industry to show the ratio of the total amount of electricity produced or supplied during a given period to the total amount which would have been produced or supplied had the maximum demand been maintained throughout the period. Central Electricity Authority's load factor over the past few years has averaged about 45 per cent.

In the transport industries the potential speeds of the vehicles used and the average speeds actually achieved in operating them are, of course, important efficiency factors.

With regard to indices in relation to machines, there is probably scope in some of the industries for the development (or perhaps merely the publication) of measurements in regard to capital expenditure. At the moment, large sums of money are being spent, but the Reports contain little information which can enable the outsider to judge with what acumen. Presumably, when the Airways Corporations decide to buy a new aircraft, they know what the capital cost is in relation to certain basic operational units. Likewise, when Central Electricity Authority order generating equipment, they must know the probable cost per megawatt of installed capacity, and they no doubt have some knowledge of the average cost per route mile of extensions of their major distribution networks. Since the capital costs of these items of equipment are extremely high, Parliament would no doubt be interested to learn of the trends of cost in suitable unit terms, and of the resulting benefits. Indeed, it is essential to do so in any broad assessment of efficiency. Such indices can, of course, be produced

most easily for industries using equipment in large and relatively standardised units, or for which average costings can be made without too high a proportion of them being subject to wide variation.

Materials

The electricity industry, with its index of thermal efficiency, provides a good illustration of the method of measuring the effectiveness with which materials—in this instance, coal—are used. Thermal efficiency is defined as “the ratio, expressed as a percentage, between the heat energy contained in the fuel consumed, and the heat energy in the electricity sent out from the station,” and Central Electricity Authority have increased it from an average of 20.91 per cent. in 1947-48 to 24.35 per cent. in 1955-56.

The gas industry also uses the index of thermal efficiency to assess the efficiency of its utilisation of coal. In this industry, however, there are two ways of computing the index, depending upon whether one assumes that the main purpose of the industry is to produce gas and that the by-products, e.g., coke, are merely incidental, or that gas and the by-product are equally important. The Ridley Committee on *National Policy for the Use of Fuel and Power Resources* thought that the former method, which produces a relatively low figure, e.g., 55 per cent., was to be preferred; but the latter method, which produces a relatively high figure, e.g., 80 per cent., is the one used by The Gas Council in their Annual Reports.

Order of Presentation

As has been said, a logical order of presentation of information will greatly assist the layman to grasp its significance. One way of approaching this problem of presentation is to find out, and to explain to the reader, what are the proportions of the various ingredients to the total cost. According to a diagram in the 1955-56 Report of Central Electricity Authority (page 70), the cost of a unit of electricity is made up approximately as follows:

Fuel Costs	575d.
Capital and Related Charges	425d.
Other Costs	390d.

Thus it would be reasonable for Central Electricity Authority to present their operational indices for generation in the order of (i) materials, (ii) machines, and (iii) men.

Financial Information

While it may be said that, on the whole, the present Reports are deficient in work measurement indices, and unnecessarily so, they contain a plethora of financial details, and the question arises whether this emphasis on financial statements of one sort and another has not been overdone. Are a tithe of those submitted ever scrutinised, even in the most cursory fashion, and used in any way? The nationalised industries are generally required by statute to keep their accounts in “a form which shall conform with the best commercial standards.” But in certain important respects, these industries are in radically different positions from privately-owned commercial companies, and one cannot help wondering whether they employ unnecessarily some of

¹Cmd. 8647. See also The Gas Council's publication, *Thermal Efficiency in Gas Production and Utilisation* by J. E. Davis (1952).

the detailed practices of commercial accounting. Be that as it may, in any determined attempt to make the Reports shorter, simpler and at the same time more illuminating, it might well be found that a good deal of the financial information at present included could be safely omitted. Some of this information is perhaps necessary for internal management purposes, but this does not mean that it should be included in Reports to Parliament.¹

NEED FOR ADEQUATE COMPARISONS

In matters of administration and management there are no absolute standards of efficiency. One organisation may be more efficient than another, but even the better one may fall short of its own ideals. Efficiency can be assessed only through a process of comparison and, if the Reports of the nationalised industries are to provide the best basis for such an assessment, they must make all the relevant comparisons they can, and present them in a systematic way. Such comparisons can be of three kinds :

- (a) Over different periods of time.
- (b) Between different parts of the organisation.
- (c) Between one organisation and another.

With regard to the first of these comparisons, it has been pointed out that the National Coal Board and British Overseas Airways Corporation publish a table of results over the past few years, and there seems to be no reason why the other Boards should not do the same.

On the second, the National Coal Board, Central Electricity Authority and The Gas Council already submit a good deal of information on a Divisional and Area basis, and current practice in this regard probably needs no improvement. No doubt the British Transport Commission will do the same for the railways when their reorganisation is complete.

With industries in national ownership, comparison with other organisations must often mean with those of other countries. The bases for comparison are no doubt rather limited, but it is open to question whether everything practicable is already done in this respect, and whether the Boards have made the fullest possible use in their Reports of the internationally compiled statistics that are already available. For example, the United Nations' Economic Commission for Europe have made surveys of the efficiency of electricity supply systems in Western Europe and the U.S.A., and the *World Airline Record* (published by Roadcap and Associates, Chicago) contains a good deal of information about the operations of the world's major airlines, including B.O.A.C. and B.E.A., compiled from replies to a standard questionnaire.

Once a set of operational indices is established for an industry as the basis of its record of past achievement, one may assume that, generally, not a great deal of comment need be added to explain or justify the results the indices

¹For some discussion on the question of whether or not the accounts of a nationalised industry can reveal the degree of efficiency achieved by that industry, see the Minutes of Evidence of the Select Committee on Nationalised Industries accompanying the Report of 23rd July, 1953 (235) ; in particular, the evidence given by Sir Frank Tribe, Mr. T. B. Robson and Sir Harold Howitt, and Sir Edward (now Lord) Bridges.

REPORTING TO PARLIAMENT ON THE NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES

reveal. In any event, if the indices are clearly presented in a logical order, and the comment is then directly related to them, it should be a simple matter for the reader to assimilate the information presented to him and to grasp its significance.

REPORTING ON FUTURE PLANS

The basic framework on which it has been suggested that past results should be recorded will also be suitable for reporting on plans for the future, since it will be desirable to know :

- (a) In what quantity the goods or services of the industry will be required, or in what measure it is proposed to supply them ;
- (b) What variations, if any, in the quality of supply are in view ; and
- (c) What steps are planned to reduce the cost of the product.

With regard to the quantity, estimates may show that demand is rising. In this event, Parliament will need to be told how far this increased demand will be met by existing resources, and how far by extensions of plant. Estimates of the future may show, however, a declining demand, as with canals and the telegraph service, in which event Parliament will need to know the extent to which contraction is planned to avoid financial loss or rises in charges.

Where the quality of the service or product can be a variable factor, and especially where it is likely to influence the demand, it is reasonable for Parliament to be told what changes are proposed, the reasons for them, and the effects they are thought likely to produce.

The expected trend of future costs will inevitably be of great interest to Parliament, and it will clearly be helpful to express these costs as far as possible in real terms, so that when the actual costs come to be checked with the estimates, the comparison will not be invalidated by any changes which may have occurred in the value of money. Trends of costs may to some extent have speculative bases, and they may be falsified by events. That is no reason, however, for not advising Parliament of the assumptions on which the Boards are proceeding. The Boards clearly have to make some assumptions, and Parliament will no doubt allow for some margins of error as an inevitable feature of business activity.

The future efficiency of practically all the existing nationalised industries will depend predominantly on two factors :

- (a) Rate of capital investment.
- (b) Rate of technological progress.

Capital investment can serve three purposes. It can (i) maintain existing plant, (ii) buy extra plant to meet increased demands, and (iii) replace existing plant which is worn out or inefficient by modern standards. If Parliament is to be given the best possible indication of the trend of future efficiency, it will need to be told what part of proposed capital expenditure is going to each of these purposes. The first of them, maintenance of existing plant, is generally likely to lead to only minor improvements in efficiency. The second, new plant to meet extra demand, will help to raise the average efficiency, but the third, plant replacement, will generally make the biggest contribution to

higher efficiency. In the latter connection it will be useful to know what are the general replacement rates for the principal items of equipment used by the industry concerned.

With regard to the rate of technological advance, this raises difficulties as far as Annual Reports are concerned, for two reasons. First, because the Boards are not the only parties with an interest in research into, and development of, the plant and processes used in the industry with which they are concerned. The equipment manufacturers are also vitally affected, and no well-defined division of responsibility for research and development between the privately-owned manufacturers and the publicly-owned users seems as yet to have been publicly debated and promulgated. Second, research programmes generally extend over periods of longer than a year and, for this reason, are not always easy to report on each twelve months.

There is no reason, however, why the Boards should not describe the operating characteristics of the latest plant brought into service, and the improvements in these characteristics which plant soon to be introduced or shortly to be ordered is expected to produce.

ADVANTAGES OF A STANDARD PATTERN

The foregoing suggestions for a standard pattern of Annual Report would be largely applicable, it is thought, to all the present nationalised industries. Experience might show that they could be improved upon. But that a standard pattern could be constructed, to which all the Boards could broadly conform, if they felt inclined to do so, can hardly be doubted.

To have such a standard pattern would bring at least three advantages. First, for the Member who acquainted himself with that pattern, it would greatly facilitate initial reading and comprehension, and subsequent reference. Second, it would help Members to understand what are the salient factors that must concern the Boards themselves in running their industries. Third, it would serve to direct Parliament's consideration and discussion to the big issues and away from matters of less importance. Indeed, if they were able to obtain a clearer understanding of the major problems of the industries and the ways they are being tackled, M.Ps. might feel less anxious than they are at present to debate the industries' affairs or ask Questions about them in Parliament. As Sir Ivor Jennings has said: "Members are always curious until they have means of satisfying their curiosity."

It may be argued that a Report of the type proposed, no matter how well it was constructed or how carefully its indices were selected and presented, would not be able to give the complete answer to the question: "Is this industry being run with the maximum possible efficiency?" It would not be able to answer this question any more satisfactorily than can the shareholder who, when receiving an increased dividend, wonders whether, if the sales force had been more energetic and the production manager more ingenious, the increase might not have been even greater. A logical and standard method of selecting and presenting material would, however, have real advantages not offered by the present diverse methods of reporting. It would reveal the largest area of really significant information and, in so doing, limit the scope for conflicting interpretation and argument.

REPORTING TO PARLIAMENT ON THE NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES

Improved reports for Parliament would not, of course, obviate the need for periodical detailed enquiries like those carried out by the Fleck and Herbert Committees in the coal and electricity industries. They might, however, help Parliament to decide when such enquiries should be undertaken. In any event, Parliament can never do the work of such specialised bodies itself.

THE TIME-SCALE PROBLEM

Apart from these broad possibilities in regard to the form and content of the Reports, there are one or two special problems that merit consideration.

First there are those aspects of administration and management which have a longer time-scale than a year, for example capital development programmes and research policies. It has already been explained that the nationalised industries are allowed to submit only Annual Reports to Parliament, and this clearly creates a problem for them. In general, they try to include in every Report something on matters of longer-term importance, although, not infrequently, they have little to say about such matters that is really newsworthy, and the Reports are made longer than need be to no purpose.

One wonders, on this particular point, if the Boards might not follow, in some respects at any rate, the practice of Lord Heyworth, the Chairman of Unilever, in reporting to his shareholders. He provides them with a brief document, recording the salient features of the year's activities and the main financial results. This "Report and Accounts" has been comfortably contained in the past few years in a 32-page booklet. In addition, Lord Heyworth deals each year, in a speech to the shareholders' Annual General Meeting, with one particular question of policy or administration which is of major concern to the company. The subjects he has treated in this way over the past few years have been :

- 1953 Synthetic Detergents.
- 1954 The United Africa Group.
- 1955 Transport.
- 1956 The Managers.
- 1957 Research in Unilever.

If the Boards of the nationalised industries followed this practice, and so spotlighted each year some particular aspect of their work, they might achieve more success in the long run in securing an understanding of their main policies and achievements than by the present method of submitting widely-ranging reports every year.

CONSOLIDATION A CAUSE OF COMPLEXITY

A special reporting problem arises for those Boards that have several different responsibilities, and it is particularly acute for the British Transport Commission which has in its charge railway, road passenger, road haulage and hotel and catering services, inland waterways, docks, harbours and wharves, and steamer services. The policy followed by the Commission is to base the first part of their Report on general subject headings, e.g., Recruitment and Training, Wages Claims, and to describe what has happened for each service

under the heading concerned. The second part is called "Working Results of Principal Activities," e.g., British Railways, British Road Services.

Associated with the Commission's Report is a volume called *Financial and Statistical Accounts*. The keynote of this is again essentially consolidation. Thus, for example, there is a heading "Rolling Stock, Ships, etc." under which are listed *seriatim* totals of railway locomotives, passenger coaches, freight trucks, road vehicles and horses, London Transport vehicles, and so on through to ships, inland waterways craft and docks craft. There are a number of other general headings and under each of them all the main services find a place.

This arrangement of material means that an M.P. wishing to make an assessment of the management of British Railways or of London Transport must turn to perhaps twenty or thirty different places in two volumes totalling 350 pages, threading his way past and disregarding the information on British Road Services, Inland Waterways and all the other services for which the Commission are responsible.

Each of the Commission's main units is operated as a largely self-contained enterprise and, for the most part, each has its own traditions and special problems. There are a few subjects in the Report, as with the scheme for equal pay for men and women, to which a Commission-wide reference is justified. Frequently, however, it is the practice to list under a general heading the developments that have taken place in the various services, or to describe only what has happened in British Railways by far the largest unit for which the Commission are responsible.

One cannot help feeling that, with the Report, Accounts and Statistics of the British Transport Commission, the policy of consolidation has produced a high degree of complexity with no compensating advantage. Most M.Ps., it is suggested, will be primarily interested in particular services, and will find it most convenient to have all the relevant information about each service brought together.

An alternative form of Report for the British Transport Commission would be self-contained sections dealing with each of the largest services, namely: (1) British Railways, (2) London Transport Executive, (3) Road Passenger Services, and (4) British Road (Haulage) Services. Docks, Harbours and Wharves; Ships and Marine; and Inland Waterways would make a kindred group of smaller services that might conveniently form a fifth self-contained section. Of the individual services this would leave only Hotels and Catering to be considered, and this could perhaps be combined with the service with which it has the closest association—presumably British Railways. Each of these five sections could be constructed to a standard pattern along the lines suggested earlier. The general part of the Commission's Report would then need to include only details of any reorganisation or change of policy affecting more than one of the individual services, financial summaries, and any necessary information on the small central services operated at the Commission's Headquarters.

The Report of Central Electricity Authority provides a further example of consolidated reporting. Details of the activities of the Authority itself and of the Area Electricity Boards in the aggregate are freely interwoven, and the operations of the Authority and of the Boards are not sharply divided

into separate sections, as presumably they could be. The Gas Council's Report makes such a division, at least in form, Part I dealing with the Council's responsibilities and Part II with the accounts and operations of the Area Boards.

In suggesting that consolidation is an unfortunate cause of complexity, it is not to be inferred that national summaries of the results of area organisations are not of the greatest value. A distinction must be drawn, however, between the aggregation of the results of organisations performing exactly the same task, and the aggregation (or consolidation) of the results of organisations with different tasks.

WHO SHOULD PUBLISH?

A further point for consideration is the question of who should publish the Annual Reports of the nationalised industries. Those of the corporations dealt with in this article are now published by the Stationery Office. This is a post-war innovation, however. Their pre-war counterparts, the Central Electricity Board and London Passenger Transport Board, published their own, and the Port of London Authority still does so. The fact that an Annual Report has to be laid before Parliament does not mean that it must be published by the Stationery Office. The C.E.B. and L.P.T.B. Reports had to be laid, as has the P.L.A. Report.

What are the pros and cons of publication by the Stationery Office? The main advantage to the Member of Parliament is that he is entitled to a personal copy without charge through the Vote Office of the House. Privately issued reports, however, he must either consult in the Library, or buy or beg from the publisher.

It is to be noted, however, that the Reports published by the industries and referred to earlier in this article, e.g., *Plan for Coal and Modernisation and Re-Equipment of British Railways*, have usually been produced to a more generous printing specification than that laid down for Parliamentary Papers by the Select Committee on Publications and Debates. The nationalised industries' own Reports do, in fact, accord with the standards of presentation followed by many reputable privately-owned commercial and industrial concerns in the reports to their shareholders. If, then, it were felt that a less austere style of production would result in Reports that were easier to read and to comprehend, there would be advantage in allowing the industries to publish the Reports themselves. If this course were adopted, the Boards would no doubt be glad to present a copy of their Reports to those Members of Parliament who wanted one, and to devise simple machinery by which this could be done.

THE PRESENT OPPORTUNITY

On 29th November, 1956, the House of Commons resolved:

"That a Select Committee be appointed to examine the Reports and Accounts of the nationalised industries established by Statute whose controlling Boards are appointed by Ministers of the Crown and whose annual receipts are not wholly or mainly derived from moneys provided by Parliament or advanced from the Exchequer."

In introducing the Motion to set up the Select Committee, Mr. R. A. Butler said: "These Reports and Accounts seem to us to provide a convenient summary of what the nationalised industries are doing, and I suppose that these documents would constitute the most practical agenda for the Committee that we could possibly devise."

The Government and the House of Commons no doubt intend the Select Committee, within the bounds which Mr. Butler postulated of the Committee's "good sense and good will," to examine and reach conclusions on the work and results achieved by the various industries. It would be a pity, however, if the fundamental question of the adequacy of the statutory provisions under which the Reports are now prepared were not reviewed at the present time. If this question should come outside the Select Committee's terms of reference, Members could doubtless find other means of examining these provisions and of considering whether, in the light of our now substantial experience, they are the best that could be devised. In particular, they might consider whether the present restriction to *Annual Reports* is wise, and whether it would not be advantageous to all concerned if the Boards were required "to present reports from time to time, including *Annual Reports* dealing with such matters as it is appropriate to report on at yearly intervals."

Such a formula would assist in the simplification of the *Annual Reports*, and would enable the long-term plans and those matters with a natural time-scale of several years to be reported on specially in the most intelligible and meaningful way. It would also allow Parliament to consider at suitable intervals of time certain broad administrative questions, e.g., research policy, depreciation policy, for all the industries at once, and to do so in a way which would be quite impossible with only a series of general annual reports of conventional style at their disposal.

Once the Select Committee starts to examine the substance of the *Annual Reports*, they may soon find themselves concerned with the question of their form. If that should happen, the Committee might well then be at the point of getting to grips with the really fundamental reason for the failure, if failure there has been, to make the *Annual Reports* documents which inspire the respect and confidence of Parliament. And that reason, it is suggested, is the absence hitherto of direct and constructive collaboration between Parliament and the Boards, and, where he has a responsibility, the Minister.

The Boards, for their part, seem to have tried to place a generous amount of information before Parliament. Ministers, it appears, have encouraged Boards to amplify rather than limit their Reports. But Parliament, although it has had two Select Committees "to consider the present methods by which the House of Commons is informed of the affairs of the nationalised industries" has given scant attention to these Reports, and declined to give a clear indication of the sort of documents it would really like to receive.

Given a willingness to experiment, the solution of this problem might not be difficult. What is needed is a working group of representative Members of Parliament and suitable officials charged with two main tasks: first, to examine the possibilities of devising different forms of Reports for some of the main industries and to produce several alternative versions of existing reports based on different set lengths or on various principles; second,

REPORTING TO PARLIAMENT ON THE NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES

in the light of the results achieved by this experiment and the experience gained in carrying it out, to draw up a code of conventions which would make for brevity and effectiveness in the Reports, which would be acceptable to Parliament, and which should form a guide for the industries' future Reports.

Possibly the Select Committee on Nationalised Industries could carry out these tasks themselves; or they might prefer to arrange for a separate body to undertake them. Either way, no more than an administrative exercise would be involved, and it would cost very little to carry out. At the least, it would almost certainly secure useful savings in future printing costs. At the best, it would lead to greatly improved communication between the nationalised industries and Parliament—and to an increase in mutual confidence which would be of inestimable benefit to all concerned.

VITALITY IN ADMINISTRATION

By HERBERT MORRISON, BASIL SMALLPEICE, SIR
ALEXANDER FLECK, SIR WILFRED NEDEN, A. D.
BONHAM-CARTER, MAJOR-GENERAL G. N. RUSSELL

Pp. 78. 8s. 6d. (6s. to Members)

Every organisation must ensure that its staff remains alert and adaptable and does not fall into habits of routine and apathy. The contributors to this symposium show how vitality can be achieved and maintained in the administration both of public authorities and of business concerns.

Herbert Morrison, on the basis of his long experience of both central and local government, shows how the official is kept up to the mark by the elected representative, who in turn is called to account by the voters. Basil Smallpeice, Managing Director of British Overseas Airways Corporation, describes how commercial competition acts as a stimulus to energy and efficiency, and how his own organisation keeps abreast of the latest developments in its sphere. Sir Alexander Fleck, Chairman of Imperial Chemical Industries, deals with the effect on administration of scientific and technical advance, and shows how his company meets this challenge.

Sir Wilfred Neden, Chief Industrial Commissioner of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, emphasises the fundamental importance of sound human relations at all levels of both private enterprise and the public service, and stresses the need for a full and frank exchange of information and ideas throughout an organisation. A. D. Bonham-Carter, a Director of Unilever Ltd., describes the ways in which his own organisation ensures that its higher management is kept at concert pitch. In the concluding chapter Major-General G. N. Russell, General Manager of British Road Services, shows how the benefits of large-scale operation can be secured without sacrificing the advantages of the small undertaking.

GEORGE ALLEN AND UNWIN LTD.

40 MUSEUM STREET, LONDON, W.C.1

Departmental Financial Control

By A. S. MARRE

Mr. Marre is Under-Secretary for Finance and Accountant General in the Ministry of Health.

Parliament, Treasury and Department

THE main objects of our system for the control of Government expenditure, viewed as a whole, are :

- (a) To achieve, between the different services for which the Government accepts responsibility, a reasonably fair distribution of the total sum which the country can afford to devote to Government expenditure.
- (b) To ensure that the money so distributed is used for the purposes for which it was intended and in accordance with the statutory authority which exists for the expenditure.
- (c) To try to secure full value for the money which is distributed.

Major issues of government policy arise in connection with the first of these objects. How much *can* the country afford for Exchequer expenditure each year? If, in the Government's view, it can afford substantially less than the total which all Departments have between them suggested will be required to implement present policies, how is the gap to be bridged (assuming it cannot be fully bridged by proper and reasonable economies in the administration and operation of the services)? Have major changes of policies to be considered, and if so where should they be made? Political considerations full facts have to be put before Ministers, the pros and cons of possible alternatives have got to be weighed, the need for legislative action, if existing powers are insufficient, examined, and the probable reactions of Members of Parliament and of the voters taken into account. All this means high-level deliberations. Each Department will fully brief their own Minister with the detailed arguments for the money which they consider they require, and for and against any changes of policy. The Treasury will present to the Chancellor, and if need be to Ministers collectively, a balanced picture covering all Departments. Ministers collectively will then decide what is to be done.

Ministers having decided upon the policies to be followed, the three separate agencies—Parliament, the Treasury, and the Department itself—with responsibility for financial control, have their separate parts to play. This paper is concerned only with the Departmental aspect, but this cannot be looked at completely in isolation. The different controls exercised by the different agencies react closely upon each other. Thus, Parliament has to vote the annual Estimates; before that stage is reached the Estimates have to be prepared and submitted to Parliament—by the Financial Secretary to the Treasury (in the case of the Civil Estimates)—after the Treasury have scrutinised and discussed the Estimates prepared by the different Departments; and further back still, the finance branches of the different Departments have had to prepare their own proposals for the Estimates, usually

after giving a pretty careful vetting to the suggestions put to them by their administrative colleagues. Again, when the money has been spent and Accounts have been presented to Parliament, Parliament through its Public Accounts Committee examines personally the Accounting Officers of those Departments of whom it wishes to ask questions, and also officers of the Treasury as necessary.

Some parts of the Parliamentary financial procedure—much of it descended from the days when Parliament was struggling to obtain control over the King's expenditure—may appear to many today to be antiquated and excessively formal. There is great insistence on regularity and propriety, in Government financial business (see (b) on page 169). It must be borne in mind that the successes of most Government Departments cannot be tested by an assessment of monetary profit or loss; and in the absence of that test of efficiency, it is inevitable that Parliament should insist as it does on strict compliance by Government Departments in the spending of money, with very detailed rules designed, for example, to provide very full safeguards against loss or misapplication of funds or stores. But we must take into account the cost in terms of clerical and administrative labour of carrying out these checks and safeguards. At the same time there is increasing emphasis these days in every part of the machine upon the importance of making the best possible use of public moneys (see (c) on page 169). A good deal of our thought is directed to trying to achieve that result while at the same time satisfying as far as possible the more formal requirements.

The Accounting Officer

The key person in the Departmental arrangements for financial control is the Accounting Officer. He is nominated by the Treasury and is almost invariably the Permanent Secretary of the Department. In his capacity as Accounting Officer he is answerable to Parliament, to whom—as well as to his Minister—he thus has a direct responsibility. It is curious to realise that the union of financial with administrative responsibility in the hands of the Permanent Secretary of a Department is of comparatively recent growth; in fact it really goes back only thirty or forty years. Before then it was customary for the Accounting Officer of a Department to be the Principal Finance Officer of that Department. This separation of financial from administrative policy was found to work unsatisfactorily. The administrators could, and did, override the views of the Principal Finance Officer, who was thus placed in a very difficult position when it came to answering for the expenditure. Moreover, finance came to be looked upon as a thing apart, a rather troublesome nuisance which could be disregarded or overridden without much compunction. When the First World War ended, various alternative methods of organisation were considered before the decision was taken to marry financial with administrative responsibility by putting them both on the Head of the Department. The theory was—and in my experience it works well in practice—that this arrangement would help to make quite sure that financial considerations were given full weight in the determination of a Department's policy. There still are—normally—separate streams in a Department for administration on the one hand, and finance on the other:

DEPARTMENTAL FINANCIAL CONTROL

but if the Permanent Secretary is to be able to discharge his responsibility as Accounting Officer, close co-operation between the two branches is necessary, and in the last resort, if differences arise between the two branches of the office which cannot be otherwise resolved, the Permanent Secretary must decide, knowing that he is financially accountable for the expenditure as well as for the policy.

Treasury control in no way detracts from the Accounting Officer's own financial responsibility to Parliament, though it helps to determine the way in which the responsibility is discharged. The duties of the Accounting Officer in fact involve accepting personal responsibility for the efficient financial administration of his Department as well as for the accuracy of the accounts which he is required to sign; and entail the obligation to appear before the Public Accounts Committee of the House of Commons and answer any queries which are raised by the Committee upon the accounts. His duties were set out in some detail in a Treasury Minute of 1872 and restated and redefined in a new letter of appointment of Accounting Officers, introduced in January, 1953. In summary, the duties can perhaps be stated as follows :

- (a) To ensure that public funds entrusted to his care are properly safeguarded.
- (b) To ensure that these funds are applied only to purposes intended by Parliament.
- (c) To ensure that the Treasury are consulted, both on technical matters affecting the accounts, on other matters relating to the formal propriety and regularity of transactions, and on the wider aspects of financial administration.
- (d) To ensure that, within the Department itself, financial considerations are taken into account at all stages, both in framing and reaching policy decisions and in executing those decisions.
- (e) To ensure that the organisation and staffing of the office are sound.

It is clear that although the Accounting Officer is regarded as personally responsible for the accounts which he signs, the phrase "personally responsible" is not to be interpreted literally. He cannot, and is not in practice expected to, satisfy himself in detail about the propriety of all the Department's financial transactions, about the accuracy of the accounts, or about the financial wisdom of every individual project. What he is expected to do in discharging his personal responsibility is to ensure that the organisation of the office is such that proper consideration will be given to these matters at the right levels; and that he himself will be brought in if any substantial difficulty arises. For the efficiency of the organisation and staffing he will have an Establishments Branch, to which he must look to discharge the ordinary day-to-day responsibility of seeing that the office is run efficiently and without excessive numbers of staff. For the financial aspect he will usually have a Finance Department, which will include an accounts branch and to which he must largely look to discharge on his behalf the other duties summarised above.

I have said that the Accounting Officer must answer for the accounts which he signs, to the Public Accounts Committee of the House of Commons.

He appears personally before that Committee and is expected in particular to be able to justify items which have been commented on by the Comptroller and Auditor-General; or, if he cannot justify them, to say what he proposes to do.

The Comptroller and Auditor-General is a servant of the House of Commons and is in charge of the Exchequer and Audit Department. Some of the staff of that Department are responsible for the formal duty of seeing that moneys paid from the Consolidated Fund (that is, the Exchequer's account at the Bank of England) are correct and are authorised by statute, and that all revenues due to the Exchequer are paid into the Consolidated Fund; but most of them are concerned with the business of auditing Departments' accounts. The larger departments have Exchequer and Audit staff working in their offices. They have the right to call for files and official documents generally, and to examine the accounts books and other books recording financial transactions of any kind. Where, as a result of their examination of these different kinds of books and documents, they find an item which suggests to them that there has been some irregularity of expenditure, whether because some accepted procedure has not been followed or because the Treasury have not been consulted where they should have been, or, more generally, where there appears to have been some unjustified extravagance or wastefulness, they ask for an explanation from the Department; and where a satisfactory explanation cannot be given and the point is of any substance it may well be that they will put the matter up to their superiors, and that the Comptroller and Auditor-General, as their Head, when certifying (as he is required to do) the accounts of the Government Department concerned, will make specific reference to that particular item. It is on items which have been discovered in this way that the Public Accounts Committee usually cross-examines the Accounting Officer. The Committee (the chairman of which is, by convention, a member of the Opposition) normally has fifteen members (from both sides of the House), and though it is infrequent for all members to be present, those who are present are usually members who take a keen interest in the proceedings and have a large number of questions to ask. After the cross-examination, the Public Accounts Committee will in due course produce a report drawing special attention to matters on which they have remained dissatisfied, often suggesting some change in procedure or practice or some speeding up of progress which they consider to be slow; and upon these items—as well as on any other items which are brought out in the course of the next year—the Accounting Officer knows that he may have to answer again next time. The fact that there is this cross-examination which has to be faced annually makes it inevitable that the Accounting Officer will take a very close interest in financial considerations and financial procedure throughout the year; and that is, indeed, part of his responsibility as Accounting Officer. For any irregular or unauthorised expenditure the Public Accounts Committee can indeed, if they so decide, recommend that the Accounting Officer should be surcharged, i.e., called upon to meet the whole or part of the unjustified expenditure from his own pocket. In that event, unless the Treasury are prepared to relieve him of the liability by submitting an estimate to Parliament covering the expenditure, he would in fact have to meet it himself. The power of surcharge is very

DEPARTMENTAL FINANCIAL CONTROL

rarely exercised by the Public Accounts Committee, but the fact that it is in the background must weigh with an Accounting Officer from time to time in deciding what course to follow.

It is by no means an easy thing for an Accounting Officer to discharge all his responsibilities without the occurrence of some mistakes or irregularities within his Department; his position becomes considerably more complicated when he has also to answer—as has the Accounting Officer of the Ministry of Health—for the activities of outside bodies financed by the Exchequer, like those set up under the National Health Service. Substantial financial responsibility has, in accordance with deliberate Government policy, been delegated by the Ministry of Health to the Hospital Boards which have been set up to administer the hospital service. A fair amount of central guidance is given and some powers are reserved to the centre. But a very wide measure of financial freedom has been delegated, and whatever precautions are taken there is bound to be a good deal more scope for irregularity and extravagance in a large hospital service administered by nearly 400 different authorities with different histories and traditions. Yet, since the service is one for which the Minister is fully answerable to Parliament, the Accounting Officer is expected to answer to the Public Accounts Committee for any inadequacies of all these different bodies.

The Principal Finance Officer, who heads the branch responsible for assisting the Accounting Officer to discharge his duties, has also a special position within the Department. His appointment requires the Prime Minister's approval, and he has the right to represent his views direct to the Minister if he feels that necessary. This special position is a further indication of the importance attached to the proper discharge of a Department's financial responsibilities. The work of the finance branch falls into two main categories: the accounts work and the work of finance. These different parts of the work overlap and are not always carried out in different branches, but it is convenient to deal with them as though they were.

Accounts Branch

It is the duty of the accounts branch to see not only to the issue of sums which are due to be paid and the collection of revenue due to the Department, to the preparation and keeping of the accounts, and to compliance with all the technical and formal procedures that have to be satisfied, but also to ensure that the safeguards to which Parliament attaches importance, particularly in relation to the custody of money and of stores, are observed.

Government accounting has its own special features and it is not usual for professional accountants to be employed in this work, though there are some special branches of Government accounting work (particularly in the trading services or in contract work) where professional accountants are used quite extensively. The work naturally varies in complexity from one Department to another—from the smaller Departments where little more is involved than the procedures to be followed in the payment of salaries, to the larger Departments where very large sums may be handled, where there may be large numbers of local offices with their own "sub-accountants," and where there may be dealings with foreign countries.

The emphasis placed by Parliament on regularity and propriety in financial dealings is reflected in the way in which the accounts are kept. Full information has to be recorded about any loss or irregularity involving even quite small sums and about any unusual transaction. This is, as I have implied, probably inevitable where public funds are involved and the ordinary tests of business efficiency are not available. It does, however, lead to insistence on safeguards aimed at avoiding losses, which, while much the same in kind as in other large organisations, are probably more elaborate and detailed. "Separation of duties" is a cardinal doctrine in Government accounting systems (as in those of other large organisations): thus, for example, a person who prepares the pay sheets of the staff is never supposed to handle the money and pay out the wages himself, and great importance is attached to this separation. Some Departments also operate a system of "internal audit" or check, the functions of the "internal auditor" being to see that there are proper systems for such matters as the control of cash and stores, for the receipt and payment of moneys and so on, that these systems are in fact operated, and that payments are made in accordance with any relevant regulations, etc. These arrangements may mean that more staff are needed than a simpler system with fewer safeguards would require. The aim is to try and strike a balance between safeguards and reasonable risks.

Something has already been said on page 172 about the auditing of accounts of Government Departments by the Comptroller and Auditor-General and his staff.

The insistence by Parliament on strict regularity in Government accounting methods and financial transactions has inevitably had a direct effect on the procedures followed in the National Health Service, where the cost is met directly by the Government. If it is right that there should be "separation of duties" in the handling of wages in a Government Department, is it not also right that there should be "separation of duties" in a hospital? The Comptroller and Auditor-General certainly thinks so and so does the Public Accounts Committee; and we have said so too; but there is a very large number of very small hospitals with a small number of staff and fairly remote from any other hospital, and there is no doubt that in a good many of these hospitals to achieve effective "separation of duties" means the employment of extra staff (or the waste of a considerable amount of time by requiring the staff of other hospitals to travel a good deal). We have here too to try and strike a balance in the light of experience.

Hospital authorities have, of course, their own accounting systems, which differ in some ways from normal Government accounting systems. One particular point of difference is perhaps worth mentioning here. Government accounts are normally on a "cash" basis; that is, they record the actual sums of money which have been paid out and received during the financial year. Hospital accounts, on the other hand, are on an income and expenditure basis; that is, they record the amounts receivable and sums payable *in respect of* services provided or supplies issued during the financial year—even though the money may not actually be paid in that financial year. The accounts of hospital authorities are not subject to audit by the staff of the Comptroller and Auditor-General (though they have the right to, and in fact do, examine the accounts). Instead they are audited by auditors appointed by the Minister

DEPARTMENTAL FINANCIAL CONTROL

of Health. These auditors have much the same functions in relation to hospital accounts as the Exchequer and Audit staff have in relation to Government accounts; they are concerned with satisfying themselves that money spent has been spent properly and on purposes for which the expenditure was authorised, and they are also expected to draw attention to any apparent examples of wastefulness and irregularity. By this system of audit, which is unusual in relation to Government expenditure and stems from the special set-up of the Health Service, the Department is able to keep hospital authorities alert and take up with the authorities points to which the auditors draw attention. It is part of the whole system of safeguards in the expenditure of public money which have had to be developed to meet the requirements of Parliament.

Finance Branch

The duties of the Finance Branch are on the whole wider and more interesting than those of the Accounts Branch; in particular it is its duty to see that financial considerations are given full weight in the formation of policy and to consult with the Treasury whenever necessary in so doing.

What is meant by seeing that financial considerations are given full weight in the formation of policy? I think there are two main aspects:

- (a) Taking into account not only the merits (including the cost) of a particular proposal and the other expenditure which the Department has already incurred or to which it is committed, but also the general financial position of the country, is it reasonable to proceed with the proposal?
- (b) If it is reasonable, is the proposal one which is calculated to secure the best return for the money to be spent?

The job of the Finance Branch is to make sure that these aspects are properly considered before a final decision is taken. It is a positive, and not a negative, function. The Finance Branch does not, and should not, have the last word; but it should, and does, see that decisions are taken after full consideration of possible difficulties, alternatives and objections.

It is not unfair to ask why a separate Finance Branch is necessary at all. Ought not the administrators themselves to be left to ask themselves the kind of questions mentioned in the preceding paragraph, and to settle the policy to be followed only when they have answered them satisfactorily? In theory the answer is yes. In practice, it does not—at any rate not always—work out like that. An administrator may tend to be an enthusiastic advocate of a particular policy, so much so that he may tend not to attach sufficient weight to the cost which it involves. He will often need some brake. Again, immersed as he is in the general issues of policy which arise, he has not always the time to familiarise himself with the full financial background to the Department's activities or with the different kinds of financial yardstick which can be applied to various projects. Moreover, he may tend to allow his judgment to be influenced unduly by the Department's professional advisers, who may concern themselves little with questions of cost. The Finance Branch, by its constant preoccupation with the one branch of work and by its regular contacts with the Finance Branches of other Departments and with the Treasury, acquires a specialised knowledge which is bound to help it to make a positive

contribution. For example, it can advise on the kind of statistics which ought to be got out if possible to measure the financial results of the policy ; on the proper interpretation of such statistics ; and on possible ways of improving them. From its independent standpoint, it may be able to point to alternative courses of action which might cost less money and be of little, if any, less value than a proposal which a particular Division is anxious to press on with. It may be able to anticipate difficulties or objections which the enthusiasm of the administrator may have minimised or overlooked. And it should always have prominently in mind the rate of expenditure already being incurred by the Department as a whole, since the development of a service may well have to be postponed if the money is not available within the total sum voted by Parliament. The powers that be are sufficiently seized of the value of having a separate Finance Branch, as mentioned on page 173, to have given the head of the Branch a special position ; not that in practice he much wants or needs to take advantage of that position—indeed it would be an admission of failure to secure sensible working arrangements within the Department if he did.

All this is not to say that financial considerations must be the pre-occupation of the Finance Branch alone. It is the administrators who ultimately spend the money ; and it is they who must be persuaded to save it. It is indeed an essential part of the job of the Finance Branch to keep the administrative divisions finance-conscious. The more they succeed in this, the less troublesome will be the duties of the Finance Branch. In a recent paper, the Comptroller and Auditor-General suggested that the existence of a strong Finance Branch might tend to weaken the sense of financial responsibility that should exist among administrators. That is not my own personal view. I think the two go largely together ; and a strong Finance Branch and a strong sense of financial responsibility among the administrators is the ideal position to attain. Both sides have to work together as a team, with joint discussion from the very earliest stages of the development of policy, and if either overshadows the other too much the result is almost bound to be unfortunate. At the top of the Department, the administrative and financial responsibilities are joined together in the Permanent Secretary, and the closer the link between the officers in the different branches, the easier it becomes for him to discharge that responsibility.

I would myself, with this in view, like to see more interchange between the administrative and Finance Branches. A sense of economy and financial responsibility cannot be the monopoly of any individual or Branch, and the more people we can train to look at this as well as the other aspects of policy, the more useful it is bound to be.

Regular contact is maintained between the Finance Branch and the Treasury. Apart from satisfying themselves that public money is being spent with strict propriety, the Treasury have the responsibility for doing, from the wider national standpoint, what the Finance Branch does within its own narrower field—that is, in particular, to try and ensure that value for money is being obtained in the policies being followed and that the resources made available to the Department are being used wisely and prudently. This involves regular correspondence and discussion between officers of the Finance Branch and the Treasury, not only at Estimates time, when the detailed

DEPARTMENTAL FINANCIAL CONTROL

proposals of Departments for the next financial year—put forward after the Finance Branch have vetted the proposals of the administrative Divisions—are examined, but whenever, for example, a new departure from policy is proposed, whenever a new or unusual point of financial difficulty crops up, and whenever it is proposed to take any action involving expenditure greater than that within which the Treasury have authorised the Department to act at its own discretion.

The relationship of the Finance Branch to the administrative side, and also its relationships with the Treasury, become more complex when there is an organisation such as the National Health Service, the cost of which falls on the Exchequer, but which yet enjoys, by deliberate Government policy, a wide measure of autonomy. Within the hospital service, for example, there is at various levels an independent administrative and financial set-up. To what extent is it reasonable to encroach by central direction and control upon the independence which the local bodies are intended to enjoy? On important questions of medical policy, the administrative Divisions of the Ministry give general guidance—consulting with the Finance Branch as necessary. Subject to that, the planning and execution of the development of the hospital service is left largely in the hands of the local bodies and of their administrative, professional, and financial staff—the financial staff of the local bodies having much the same responsibility for financial advice to their own authorities as have the Department's own finance staffs at the centre. How far, in this kind of organisation, ought the Department's own administrative and Finance Branches to attempt to control the activities of the administrative and finance staffs in the field? In fact, we have worked out what really amounts to a compromise :

- (1) Before the beginning of each financial year, within the total which we expect to be voted to us by Parliament, we allocate to each Hospital Board a total sum of money for the running costs of its hospitals in the following year. Within that total, they have more or less complete freedom to spend, though in view of the importance of maintaining the assets of the service, we do now " earmark " the sum included for building maintenance work in each Board's allocation so as to ensure its use for that purpose alone.
- (2) Some general guidance—but not direction—is from time to time given from the Department as to priorities. For example, we may think at a particular time that the part of the service most urgently in need of as much money as can be spared is the mental hospital service ; and we should encourage the Boards to devote as much of their resources as they reasonably can to that part of the service. In this general guidance we include points to which we know Parliament attaches a good deal of importance in the spending of public money, such as safeguards for cash and the need to keep inventories up to date.
- (3) We also circulate statistical and other information designed to show whether one hospital is being more expensive and or less efficient than another, for example, figures showing for each hospital the weekly cost per bed ; the average occupancy of the beds ; staffing ratios ; and so on.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

With the help of this kind of material, we expect the Boards to study and improve upon their own performances.

- (4) We also exercise some control over new developments by requiring details of building schemes or projects for the acquisition of premises above a prescribed figure to be submitted to us for approval.
- (5) We have a system for controlling manpower numbers by broad groups.
- (6) We have also lately introduced as an experiment a hospital O & M service which will—by invitation of the hospital authorities—investigate particular kinds of procedures—the system of records, stores accounts, etc.—and the organisation of particular units.

Local Government Finance in South Africa

By L. P. GREEN

Dr. Green's analysis of the financial position of Local Authorities in South Africa shows a striking similarity to the position in the United Kingdom.

TOWARDS the end of 1956, the Union Government set up a committee to enquire into the financial relations between the central government, the provinces and local authorities in South Africa. The committee is now setting about its formidable task, and its investigation is none too soon. South Africa has not escaped the revolution in financial relations between central and local governments that has swept through most of the more advanced countries of the world in the last 35 years. This revolution has had two main causes: the growing demand for communal services and equipment of all kinds consequent upon the rapid urbanisation of national populations, and the lack of a corresponding growth in local financial resources because of the dependence upon the local assessment rate. As estimated below, the gap between local financial needs and resources in South Africa now stands at roughly £20 million, and it is growing by over £1 million a year.

This gap began to appear during the depression of 1931 and 1932, when demands made upon all levels of government started to multiply. Central and provincial revenue resources were able to respond to these demands because of the fertility of the income tax. At first local revenues also responded, not by way of the rate, which proved to be a relatively inelastic source of revenue, but by way of trading profits. The Second World War had a catastrophic effect on trading undertakings, however, and trading profits fell from 25.7 per cent. to 7.4 per cent. of municipal revenues between 1938 and 1948. They have since remained relatively stationary. Municipal revenues thus lost their buoyancy and the gap between local financial needs and resources has rapidly expanded in recent years.

The Growth in Demand for Communal Services and Equipment

The growth in demand for communal services and equipment has had two main causes: a rapidly increasing urbanisation of the population, and the setting of higher standards of service.

Between 1921 and 1951, the rural white population declined by 99,000 people, while the urban white population increased by 1,224,000 and from 56 per cent. to 78 per cent. of the total white population. The non-white rural population continued to increase, by 2,185,000, but the non-white urban population increased by 2,402,000, and the proportion of urban non-whites rose from 16 per cent. to 33 per cent. Taking all races together, the urban population rose from 25 per cent. to 42 per cent. of the total population. On the basis of the changes taking place between 1946 and 1951, it may be estimated that about 50 per cent. of the Union's population now lives in its urban areas.

This extraordinary shift in population coincided with an economic and technological revolution that made far-reaching demands upon existing

municipal services and brought new ones in its train. The increasing use of motor transport, particularly the private passenger car and heavy-duty vehicle, introduced serious problems in street construction and maintenance and in traffic control and parking. Rapid industrialisation led to heavy expenditure on health, housing and public services generally, without equivalent return. The influx of natives into urban areas, as a result of the economic revolution, imposed further burdens on municipal government, since they could contribute little towards the cost of the extra services that had to be provided for them.

The Central and Provincial Authorities were naturally affected by this urbanisation of the population, but to a lesser degree than the Union's Local Authorities, as the latter have always provided most of the communal services and equipment demanded in the urban areas. Between 1921 and 1952, the only major changes made in the distribution of functions between the several levels of government were the transfer of poor relief and, in Natal, police from the Local to the Provincial and Central Authorities, and the development of social welfare services as a State activity. The direct burden of urbanisation fell for the most part on the shoulders of the Local Authorities.

It is difficult to estimate with any accuracy the part played by higher standards in increasing the demand for communal services and equipment. Certainly, however, demands for higher standards in personal and environmental health services, whether arising locally or coming from higher authority by way of legislation and regulation, entailed a heavy additional financial drain on municipal resources. The principle of *apartheid*, the provision of separate amenities, and the new standards advocated in town planning involving larger stands, wider streets, grass verges, double carriage-ways, open spaces, green belts, parks and recreation grounds, also added to the cost of municipal servicing. And, although the individual expenses incurred in social welfare and allied activities may have been small at the local level, their accumulation led eventually to substantial outlays.

The Relative Decline in Local Revenues

The main sources of local revenue have been the local rate, charges for services, trading profits, licence fees and rents. Of these sources, charges for services are mainly for sewerage and refuse removal. Apart from trading undertakings, the remaining field of municipal activities must be financed for the most part from rates and trading profits. Table I on page 181 is concerned with these two sources of revenue and with the decline in their contribution to total municipal revenues. It also throws into relief the main trends in national, provincial and local taxation.

Table I speaks for itself. Between 1919 and 1952, national and provincial tax revenues rose from 12.4 per cent. to 18.6 per cent. of the national income, but municipal revenues rose from 1.9 per cent. to only 2.7 per cent. Moreover, the latter rose to a peak of 3.5 per cent. in 1939 and then fell year by year to a level in 1952 below that of 1929. In short, while by using trading profits, municipal revenues marched ahead of national and provincial tax revenues in the early years of the revolution in financial relations, since the War years they have fallen increasingly behind. This is confirmed by Table II on page 182. The reasons for this decline are also given in Table I. Between

LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

TABLE I

National Income, National and Provincial Revenues and Municipal Revenues, 1919-52

	1919	1929	1939	1949	1952
National Income	£ million 193	£ million 271	£ million 395	£ million 878	£ million 1,273
National and Provincial Tax Revenues	24	36	56	171	237
Percentage of National Income	12.4%	13.2%	14.2%	19.5%	18.6%
Municipal Revenues*	4	8	14	27	34
Percentage of National Income	1.9%	3.1%	3.5%	3.1%	2.7%
Municipal Rate Revenues	2	3	5	11	14
Percentage of National Income	0.9%	1.2%	1.3%	1.3%	1.1%
Municipal Trading Profits	0.3	2	4	1	2
Percentage of National Income	0.2%	0.7%	1%	0.1%	0.2%

*Deducting trading expenditure from trading income and including grants, refunds and subsidies.

(Source: Official Union Year Books and Industrial Development Corporation, S.A., Ltd., Statistical Division)

1919 and 1939, rate revenues rose from 0.9 per cent. to 1.3 per cent. of the national income; trading profits rose from 0.2 per cent. to 1 per cent. By 1952, however, rate revenues had fallen to 1.1 per cent. and trading profits to 0.2 per cent. again.

Thus, although the direct burden of urbanisation fell mainly on the shoulders of the local authorities, their share in the aggregate revenue resources of all levels of government actually declined between 1919 and 1952 from 14 per cent. to 12 per cent. Moreover, the municipal revenue statistics given in Table I include central grants, refunds and subsidies as well as trading profits, and the rating statistics therefore give a truer reflection of the municipalities' plight. Rate revenues fell from 7 per cent. to only 4 per cent. of total government revenues. This decline, confirmed by Table II or page 182, is a clear measure of the relative inelasticity of the main local tax and its inability to respond to the demands made upon it by rapid urbanisation in spite of the rise in property values resulting from such urbanisation.

The Gap between Local Needs and Resources

In a very rough manner, it is possible to measure the increasing gap between the growing financial needs of Local Authorities arising from the urbanisation of the Union's population, and their declining capacity to meet such needs.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

This is attempted in Table II, on the basis that in 1919 government sources of revenue were generally adequate at all levels, and that the relationship then obtaining between the *per capita* incidence of taxation and *per capita* income may be taken as a yardstick with which to measure the adequacy of taxation in later years. It must be noted, however, that the use of this yardstick must leave out of account the growing needs of local authorities arising from the urbanisation that took place after 1919. It is difficult to say how much is left out, but it is significant that the Table shows the incidence of national and provincial taxation to have more than doubled between 1919 and 1952, and an increasing proportion of personal incomes to have accrued to the national and provincial governments. For municipal revenues to have grown at the same speed, their index number should have been 497 in 1952 and not merely 336 as indicated by the yardstick.¹

TABLE II

National Income, National and Provincial Tax Revenues, Municipal Revenues and Municipal Rate Revenues per capita; 1919-52

Year	National Income per capita		National and Provincial Tax Revenues per capita		Municipal Revenues per capita (Urban Population)		Municipal Rate Revenues per capita (Urban Population)	
	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.	Amount	Index No.
1919	£29.4	100	£3.7	100	£2.6	100	£1.3	100
1929	£32.5	111	£4.3	116	£3.3	127	£1.2	92
1939	£39.0	133	£5.5	149	£4.2	162	£1.5	115
1949	£72.3	246	£14.1	381	£5.5	212	£2.3	177
1952	£98.8	336	£18.4	497	£6.1	235	£2.5	192

(Source : Union Census Returns and Table I above)

Table II shows only too clearly the failure of local taxation to march in step with the growth in the national income, and the more than proportionate growth in national and provincial taxation. On the basis of the *per capita* incidence of taxation in 1919, the gap between municipal needs and resources in 1952 can be estimated at an index number of roughly 100, i.e., £2 6s. *per capita*. With an estimated urban population of 5,600,000, this means a shortfall of £14,560,000. In other words, for municipal revenues to bear the same relationship to national income in 1952 as they did in 1919, they should have

¹The assumptions that Government sources of revenue were generally adequate at all levels in 1919 and that municipal revenues should at least have kept in step with the increase in the national income, are both reasonable and more difficult to deny than to support. Not only do the trends in the two Tables tend to confirm them—if anything, they indicate that municipal revenues were inadequate in 1919—but the rate of expansion and urbanisation of the population was comparatively slow up to that date and the pressure on sources of revenue thus relatively light at all levels.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

amounted to at least £48 million instead of £34 million. Today, 1957, the short-fall must be in the region of £20 million, if the trends from 1919 to 1952 have continued. Even so, this is a most conservative estimate as it virtually ignores the growing needs of rapid urbanisation from 1919 onwards, since which date the Central Government has loaded Local Authorities with ever-widening responsibilities under health, housing, native administration, separate amenities, group areas, food and drugs, and slum clearance legislation.

The table also outlines the history of the gap between local financial needs and resources. Even by 1929, the local rate was failing to keep in step with the growth in national income, and increased reliance was being placed on trading profits to bolster up local revenues. By 1939, while total municipal revenues had increased faster than either the national income or national and provincial tax revenues, local rate revenues had fallen still further behind. The favourable position of municipal revenues was thus artificial and its vulnerability was clearly revealed once trading profits began to slump after the War. By 1949 the true position was only too evident, and the failure to find any local revenue source to take the place of trading profits widened the gap at an alarming speed.

Local Authorities were very much aware of their vulnerable financial position before the War. Representatives were first made by the United Municipal Executive in 1933 in connection with the derating of Government property, and in 1937 a comprehensive memorandum on financial relations was submitted to the Minister of the Interior. A number of interviews took place between 1938 and 1941 and further memoranda were prepared in 1944, 1946 and 1949. By then, expenditure on housing, public health, social welfare and native administration was accounting for 27.5 per cent. of the total annual expenditure of nineteen major municipalities, in spite of the fact that central refunds amounted to only 6 per cent. of their total income. Since new sources of revenue had not been made available, the strain had to be taken by existing sources never designed to support the demands made upon them by rapid urbanisation.

The memorandum prepared in 1949 by the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, S.A., for the United Municipal Executive, covered sixteen heads of income and expenditure, including health services, housing, assessment rates on Government properties, motor vehicle licences, traffic control and trading and liquor licences. As shown in an addendum published in February, 1955, subsequent discussions on the basis of this memorandum with the Minister of Finance, other Ministers and the Provincial Administrations resulted in a small measure of agreement in regard to health refunds, but not in respect of sub-economic housing, assessment rates on Government properties and motor vehicle licences, which were three of the main items. In October, 1953, a further memorandum was prepared by the Institute entitled *Other Possible Sources of Revenue, etc.*, reviewing the history of the negotiations related above and making twelve further submissions on alternative revenue sources. In spite of the weight of evidence in support of these submissions, no immediate action was taken by either the central or provincial authorities except in Natal in connection with motor vehicle licence revenues, and the problem of the gap between ends and means thus still awaits solution. The recent Government policy of

restricting capital supplies to Local Authorities has in fact tended to widen the gap, since some of the latter have had to set aside considerable sums from current revenues to finance capital development which would normally have been met from loan moneys.

Conclusions

It is too early to forecast the recommendations of the committee of enquiry, but it cannot have much room for manoeuvre. If it examines the possibilities of transferring functions from Local Authorities to other bodies, it cannot do much more than suggest that the central government or provincial administrations should assume the financial responsibility for personal health services, sub-economic housing, ambulance services and airports, whether or not these continue to be locally administered. A gap of some £15 million will still remain and, short of suggesting further increases in central subsidies, the committee will be forced to turn to new sources of local revenue as the main solution to its problem. Here, apart from the re-rating of Government property, which might bring in £1 million a year, the answer can lie only in the directions of either a re-allocation of resources in the non-national tax field, or new local taxation—or a combination of both.

As regards a re-allocation of non-national sources of revenue, Local Authorities have already submitted that two-thirds of the motor vehicle licence revenues, one-half of the entertainment tax revenues, and one-third of the betting, totalisator and auction sales taxes should be transferred to them from the provinces. However, together with the re-rating of Government properties, this action could no more than halve a £15 million gap between local needs and resources, and there seems to be no escape from recommending one new source of local revenue. The most fertile source would be a local income tax, to be collected provincially along with the central income tax. A rate of 2d. or, at the most 3d., in the £, would effectively seal the gap, if companies were included. The alternative is probably a sales tax, but it would not comply so fully with the canons of taxation nor be such a fertile source of revenue. Moreover, a local income tax is actually no innovation to South Africa, as it was levied at the Cape between 1814 and 1839 before the present assessment rate took its place.

The University Grants Committee

By DR. H. V. WISEMAN

This is an addendum to Dr. Wiseman's article in the Spring, 1956, issue of "Public Administration."

IN January, 1955, the Treasury hoped that the Public Accounts Committee would not press its proposal that certain proceedings and papers relating to non-recurrent grants to universities be open to inspection by the Comptroller and Auditor-General at least until the publication of a report on the subject by a special committee of four. On 12th February, 1957, in a Special Report from the P.A.C., the Treasury rejected the proposal. Perhaps at last the P.A.C. may accept defeat in the twelve years' war of attrition with the Treasury on the degree of autonomy proper to the University Grants Committee. Despite increased estimates for the next quinquennium and the publicity given to them, to increased salaries for university staffs, to the cost of awards to university students, and to the requirements of the "bulge," there has been no significant dissent from the Treasury decision. The following note summarises the stages whereby this decision has been reached and brings the original article up to date.

The special committee of four, under the Chairmanship of Sir George Gater, was appointed by the U.G.C. in June, 1954. Its terms of reference, suggested by the Treasury, were "to report . . . whether any, and if so what, changes are necessary to secure that universities' methods of contracting, and of recording and controlling, expenditure are reasonably designed and properly applied, to ensure effective safeguards against waste, extravagance, or other abuse." The Committee reported in January, 1956. Each university completed an elaborate questionnaire and was, in addition, visited by Sir George Gater and the Secretary; the procedure of the Ministries of Works and of Education, of the London County Council, and of the U.G.C. itself, was examined; the Committee held 24 meetings.

Its final report covered over 20 pages and ran into over 100 paragraphs. All is practical detail and relevant. The summary of conclusions and recommendations contains 66 points. Seldom can an O & M team have done its work more thoroughly. In a letter to all the university institutions concerned, dated 22nd June, 1956, the U.G.C. expressed "gratification at finding how nearly their own practice conforms with that recommended" and described the report as "a most valuable statement of the procedures which should be followed." The U.G.C., however, qualified its acceptance of 16 of the 66 recommendations. Details of the matters referred to in this and the preceding paragraph are contained in the White Paper *Methods used by Universities of Contracting and of Recording and Controlling Expenditure* (Cmd. 9) published in November, 1956. Armed with this authoritative survey to supplement the previous points made by the P.A.C., the Treasury proceeded to formulate its proposals. The result was the Special Report of 12th February, 1957.

The Treasury reiterated its complete confidence in the determination and ability of the U.G.C. to discharge its functions "with a full sense of

responsibility to the Government and the universities"—an adequate retort to the doubts engendered by the sustained attack of the P.A.C. and the attitude expressed by one question which went so far as to ask whether the U.G.C.'s estimates were "made in good faith!" Four main features of control were then set out:

1. The Government must determine the total amount of commitments (for non-recurrent grants) which may be entered into in a given year.
2. The University Grants Committee must determine the projects on which this money may be spent and also the cost of all such projects. (On point 1 and 2 the Treasury was satisfied with existing practice.)
3. The universities themselves must ensure economy in expenditure. (On this point the Treasury "trust that the P.A.C. will agree that the proposals of the Gater Committee give solid assurance that proper financial practices will in fact be followed.")
4. The Treasury must be provided with information (available also to the Comptroller) "to show that the total commitments entered into have not exceeded the approval given by the Government, to ensure that the accounting officer is aware of the main projects on which the U.G.C. has decided that the money should be spent, and also to ensure that the Treasury are able to review the position in good time if the pattern of expenditure in a particular year seems likely to be widely different from that envisaged by Parliament in voting the grant."

It is on the fourth point that a number of changes are to be introduced. Each university institution will notify its auditor of every non-recurrent grant received and its purpose. The auditor will be requested to give a certificate, in general terms, that such grant was duly applied to such purpose. The U.G.C. will obtain from the universities monthly claims in respect of certain building projects and quarterly claims in respect of all others. The U.G.C. will provide the Treasury with quarterly statements based on these claims, and these statements will be open to inspection by the Comptroller. If the latter raises points with the Treasury, the U.G.C. might be asked to supply further information. If, after the estimate for a year has been approved, the U.G.C. wish to alter substantially—defined as more than 10 per cent.—the distribution of the non-recurrent grant, it will seek the Treasury's approval.

Though the precise significance of these changes can be understood only by reference to the original article and, indeed, to the more detailed material on which it was based, one thing seems certain. Beyond the point now reached—and as *The Times* remarked on 13th February, 1957, if this kind of thing goes much further they will be putting somebody in to count the petty cash—it is impossible to go without upsetting the delicately balanced mechanism of the U.G.C. We may again echo *The Times* and say "thank goodness the Treasury have once again returned a firm answer to the P.A.C. over the question of university grants . . . the solution which was hit upon has worked extremely well. It is admired by many other countries. A typically successful political-administrative device of the kind the British are adept at evolving, it should now be left to get on with its job."

Valuation and Rating in Scotland

By A. CURRIE

The Depute Town Chamberlain of the Burgh of Hamilton explains the changes that are taking place in Scottish law and the reasons for them.

THE main provisions of the Valuation and Rating (Scotland) Act, 1956, abolished at one blow two peculiarly Scottish institutions—the local rate payable by owners of heritable property and the direct association which existed between the valuation of property for rating purposes and the rent at which it was let. When the Act comes fully into effect in 1961, some of the long-standing differences between Scottish and English practice will have been removed: but it would be a mistake to imagine that a common practice would then obtain in both countries.

In 1956 the position in Scotland was that each geographical area was subject to one rating authority only and that each rating authority levied only one rate. Broadly speaking, the rate was divided equally between the owners and the occupiers of heritable property; there were certain exceptions in the Burghs where historically the occupiers bore responsibility for the costs of a limited number of services. In addition, a separate water rate was imposed under the Water (Scotland) Act, 1949, and a limited number of special rates were found in the Administrative Counties. This consolidation had been achieved by the Rating (Scotland) Act, 1926, and the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1929. These respectively provided for the imposition of rates by one authority and for the consolidation of the many rates which had hitherto been levied for separate services.

The chief weakness of the system thrown up by the years was the existence of the owners' rate. This had no counterpart in England and to it there has been attributed the blame for certain shortcomings in Scotland.

The First Sorn Committee

In consequence of criticisms over a long period and in anticipation of the need for a large number of new houses once the war was over, a Departmental Committee was appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland in 1943 under the chairmanship of Lord Sorn to review, among other things, "the effect of the existing system of rating on the provision of houses, and the question whether it is practicable and desirable to limit the maximum amount payable in respect of owners' rates." Its report appeared in 1945 (Cmd. 6595). The Committee found that the rating system was a serious deterrent to building by private landlords, and that the blame for this might fairly be placed upon the owners' rate. In the first place, this rate was exigible as soon as building was complete; the liability awaited the arrival neither of a purchaser nor of an occupier. Hence, builders tended to work only for an assured market, and had little incentive to engage in the same kind of speculative building which had for many years prevailed in England. Again, where property was let, the return on the investment fell with each increase in the owners' share of the rate. The landlords' return might have

been secured by passing successive increases in rates to their tenants, but this was not always possible because of the Rent Acts. Moreover, an annual revision of such a contract is neither desirable nor is it always economically possible. The system contained a further complication; although a landlord might have been able to vary the rent payable, it was not enough merely to impose an increase equal to the increase in rates. Each change in rent was accompanied by a corresponding change in rateable value. This movement of rateable value in sympathy with rent produced the peculiarly Scottish phenomenon of "rates upon rates" and owners' rate poundages having reached such a level that in many cases more than twice the amount of rate increase would have had to be added to rent in order that the landlord might retain his position. This state of affairs had been uncompromisingly condemned by the Departmental Committee on Local Taxation of 1922 (Cmd. 1674) which concluded that "the exhaustion of all margin of profit (as a result of the rate burden) which renders house-building as an investment unprofitable has a direct effect on the housing problem. Not only does it raise rents, but it entirely destroys the possibility of private enterprise setting itself to meet the demand for house accommodation."

The Sorn Committee considered the abolition and the limitation of the owners' rates. They favoured limitation rather because of their terms of reference than for any other reason. They also recommended that property which was empty for at least three months should not be liable for either the owners' or occupiers' rates. No action was taken on the Report.

The Second Sorn Committee

The question rested until the appointment of the Second Sorn Committee in May, 1953, "to review the present system of valuation and rating (other than the derating of agricultural, industrial and freight transport lands and heritages) in Scotland; to consider whether any, and if so what, changes should be made in the system, and what other action would in consequence of any such changes be required; and to report."

Meanwhile there had been changes in England, particularly concerning valuation. The Local Government Act of 1948 transferred valuation functions from the Local Authorities to the Inland Revenue: after much delay a revaluation was completed and became effective in April, 1956. This was based on current values of commercial property but on 1939 values of houses. It led to increased valuations in general but with a marked swing of incidence away from house property to commercial hereditaments.

The Sorn Committee reported in September, 1954 (Cmd. 9244). Their principal recommendations were that the owners' rate should be abolished and that rents should correspondingly be reduced: that valuation should be related rather to fair rents on current values than to actual rents: that the County Councils and the Councils of the four Counties of Cities alone should appoint Assessors: and that all property should be revalued every five years. They also made several other recommendations of minor importance.

On this occasion the report has been followed by legislation—the Valuation and Rating (Scotland) Act, 1956, which, in the main, embodied the Committee's recommendations.

The Abolition of Owners' Rates

Owners' rates will be abolished from the beginning of the financial year 1957-58; and the rents of let property will be reduced from that date, by the amount of the owners' rates payable in the year 1956-57. This means that if rates do not change, the total payment by tenants will be unchanged, but that they will bear the whole of any future increase in rates. A complete revaluation of all property based on current values, is to be completed by the beginning of the financial year 1961-62. Valuation is to be divorced entirely from rents. In the meantime, the rateable values of property in existence in 1956-57 will be preserved at their present amounts, and new property will be valued as though the law had not been changed. It appears that Scottish house property will therefore continue to attract higher valuations than corresponding property in England. Assessors may well be faced with great problems. In most cases, since rented houses are valued at their actual rents rateable values tend to be depressed either by the operation of the Rent Acts or because of subsidies. It is most exceptional for houses to be let at economic rents. Perhaps a handy guide will be provided by the owner-occupied houses. On the other hand, their present valuations are probably depressed because of comparison with protected let property.

The principal effect of the abolition of the owners' rate is further to narrow the basis of local taxation. This is to be regretted particularly at a time when the shortcomings of the rating system have never been more apparent. It has been argued persuasively in the past that to the extent that the owners of property derive benefit from local government services, they should bear a fair share of local expenditure. No evidence has been adduced to justify rejection of that view.

So long as the owners' rate was exigible, a tax could be collected from the owners of empty property. Broadly speaking, no occupiers' rate was levied. The English idea of beneficial occupation has no place in the Scottish scheme, but *prima facie* there may be a place for it in future. It should be noted, however, that the 1956 Act enables rating authorities to levy a limited rate on owners who allow property to remain unoccupied without reasonable cause.

The Changes in Valuation

The Second Sorn Committee recommended that Assessors should revalue one-fifth of their areas each year. The annual value was to be arrived at by considering what a hypothetical tenant would be prepared to offer as a fair rent. The statutory restriction on the rents of controlled houses is to be ignored in arriving at the annual value.

The new Act provides that a complete revaluation shall be carried out at five-yearly intervals. The recommendation by the Sorn Committee was rejected by the Government because they considered that it would result both in annual fluctuation in rateable valuations and in unfairness to occupiers as ratepayers.

Until the new Act, property in Scotland was valued by reference to 'the rent at which, one year with another, such lands and heritages might in their actual state be reasonably expected to let from year to year . . . and where such lands and heritages are *bona fide* let for a yearly rent conditioned

as the fair annual value thereof, without grassum or consideration other than the rent, such rent shall be deemed and taken to be the yearly rent or value of such lands and heritages in terms of this Act" (Lands Valuation (Scotland) Act, 1854).

A new definition of annual value appears in Section 6 of the 1956 Act, viz.: "The gross annual value of any lands and heritages consisting of one or more dwelling-houses or other non-industrial buildings, with any garden, yard, garage, outhouse or pertinent belonging to and occupied along with such dwelling-house or dwelling-houses or buildings, but without other land shall be the rent at which the lands and heritages might reasonably be expected to let from year to year if no grassum or consideration other than the rent were payable in respect of the lease and if the tenant undertook to pay all rates and the landlord undertook to bear the cost of the repairs and insurance and the other expenses, if any, necessary to maintain the lands and heritages in a state to command that rent."

The new gross annual value is to be arrived at after consideration of a free market and current values. No account is to be taken of any artificial effect on rents caused by, e.g., the rent restriction and housing legislation. It is difficult to foresee what will be the effect of the first complete revaluation in 1961-62. To the extent that property has already been valued at current price levels, one might expect some reduction to follow because of the abolition of the owners' rate: its existence tended to result in rateable values above the English level. The combination of rent restriction and of house ownership on a large scale by Local Authorities, however, may result in some swing of incidence away from commercial and other property towards house property. The change in incidence in favour of house property in England was largely caused by the valuation of houses at the 1939 price level: it cannot be expected therefore in Scotland. One defect of the new system is that actual rent is not likely to become the basis of rateable value in any particular case. Instead, there will begin a search for hypothetical tenants willing, and presumably able, to pay rather higher rents than those paid by actual tenants. The reason for the new legislation is clear; but nostalgia for the simplicity of the "actual rent" method is difficult to dispel.

Rateable values for the year 1956-57 continue to be effective until the revaluation is completed. As a matter of practice no easy alternative can be offered. It has been regretted, however, that such anomalies as the former system produced are to be allowed to continue for a further five years. It is known that these have been considerable both within rating authorities and between them and it may be that until rents are fixed with a truer regard to the worth of each property, the search for the hypothetical tenant must continue.

The independent position in Scotland of the Assessor is maintained under the new act. He has always been regarded as acting judicially—he is not concerned with the interests of his employer as rating authority. The Secretary of State has made regulations defining the professional qualification which must be held by Assessors and their deputed. This is a progressive step which is to be welcomed: a welcome nevertheless tempered by sympathy for those unqualified officers who will consequently lose their appointments this year.

VALUATION AND RATING IN SCOTLAND

An appeal against valuation lies to a local valuation appeal committee. These Committees will be appointed by the Sheriff of each County after such consultation as he thinks fit. Each committee will have its own secretary, who is not to be a local government officer. Formerly, appeals were heard by a local appeal court normally composed of members of the rating authority advised by the Clerk to the Council. While one would not suggest that their decisions were not judicial, it was undesirable that they should appear to be judges in their own causes. The new procedure may be expected, therefore, to be an advance on the old.

The securing of uniformity throughout the country is to be assisted by the activity of the Scottish Valuation Advisory Committee. This new body, appointed by the Secretary of State, will receive an annual report from each Assessor and will advise the Secretary of State on any matter relating to valuation.

Public Administration Clearing House

THE years between the wars saw a notable development in the United States of organisations devoted to the study of public administration and to the improvement of administrative practices. An important impetus came from the Spelman Fund of New York, when it gave grants in the 1930s to set up Public Administration Clearing House, a body designed to bring together under a common roof existing professional organisations in the field of public administration, and to help to establish new ones for which there seemed to be a need.

In 1938 the present Clearing House was opened at 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago. This handsome building stands on land owned by the University of Chicago, and was erected under an agreement with the University which provides that the students and faculty may use the library and materials of the Clearing House, thus making "1313" a source of study and research.

For the past 25 years Public Administration Clearing House has served two rôles. It has helped to provide a home, and a library and other common services, for more than a dozen important organisations such as the Council of State Governments, the International City Managers Association, the Public Personnel Association and the Federation of Tax Administrators. It has also undertaken certain pioneering activities of its own, and in this it was recently helped by grants from the Ford Foundation. These activities included special research projects, maintaining contacts and communications with university faculties and research centres, and liaison work with federal government agencies and with international organisations. It took particular interest in the international field and in assistance to officials in newly self-governing countries.

Unfortunately Public Administration Clearing House was not endowed and, on the expiration of its long-term grants, its governing body came to the conclusion that it should go into a period of orderly liquidation and transfer its responsibility for the management of the "1313" centre to the organisations headquartered there. The new controlling body from the beginning of 1957 is Public Administration Service, a non-profit-making consultancy service already housed in the Clearing House, and on whose Board of Trustees all the organisation housed in "1313" have a representative.

Public Administration Clearing House has had only two Directors. The first was Louis Brownlow, who served from 1930 to 1945, and who, in the mid-1930s, was Chairman of the President's Committee on Administrative Management. Mr. Brownlow is still active. He recently published the first volume of his autobiography, *Passion for Politics* (Chicago University Press), and has lately undertaken a course of university lectures. The second Director was Herbert Emmerich, who has also been a good friend of the Royal Institute of Public Administration's in recent years and who is known to many of its members. He took part in an Institute conference at Ashridge in 1947 and was entertained by members during his visit to London in 1951. Mr. Emmerich has now taken up an appointment as Consultant in Public Administration in the Technical Assistance Administration of the United Nations.

One of the organisations which Public Administration Clearing House

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CLEARING HOUSE

helped to foster is the American Society for Public Administration. This Society, which was founded in 1939 and publishes the quarterly journal *Public Administration Review*, corresponds in many ways to the Royal Institute of Public Administration. Both organisations have a number of activities (and problems) in common. The American Society for Public Administration has lately received a promotional grant from the Ford Foundation, and is making strenuous, and successful, efforts to develop its work and to increase its membership.

Members of the Royal Institute of Public Administration who are familiar with the American scene will regret that Public Administration Clearing House has had to go out of existence, but will congratulate it on its achievement over the past 25 years, an achievement which will continue to bear good fruit in the future. They will also be glad that the American Society for Public Administration has the opportunity to enlarge its work, and will wish it every success in its present endeavours.

Pay of the Higher Civil Service

Standing Advisory Committee Appointed

The appointment of a standing advisory committee on the pay of the Higher Civil Service, in accordance with the recommendation of the Royal Commission on the Civil Service, was announced from 10 Downing Street on 7th February, 1957.

Chairman : Lord Coleraine.

Members : Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders, Mr. Geoffrey Crowther, Sir Alexander Fleck, K.B.E., Sir Oliver Franks, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., and Lord Latham.

The Royal Commission recommended that the Prime Minister should make the appointments after consulting staff interests informally. It was also suggested that they should be people "chosen to reflect a cross-section of informed opinion in the country at large." (An article on the Royal Commission's Report appeared at pages 187-198 of the Summer, 1956, issue of PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, and a survey of the measures taken to implement the Report at pages 321-328 of the Autumn, 1956, issue.)

Terms of Reference

1. The function of the Committee is stated in general terms in paragraph 386 of the Royal Commission's Report—namely, to exercise a general oversight of the remuneration of the Higher Civil Service.

2. The Royal Commission defined the Higher Civil Service in paragraph 15 as "all staffs whose salary maximum or whose fixed rate exceeds the maximum of the Principal." Under their recommendation this maximum was raised to £1,850; it has now been settled at £1,950.

3. The Royal Commission's main recommendations on the Higher Civil Service are contained in Chapter IX of its Report. Having accepted these recommendations, the Government have put into effect the rates of pay which the Royal Commission in paragraphs 367-69 regarded as appropriate for the Higher Civil Service. The rates recommended by the Royal Commission were related to conditions prevailing in the middle of 1955; they came into operation with effect from 1st April, 1956.

4. Under the Royal Commission's recommendations the Committee will be called into action in various ways :

(a) In the exercise of its general oversight of the remuneration of the Higher Civil Service, to advise the Government, either at the latter's request or on its own initiative, on what changes are desirable in the remuneration of these officers. The Royal Commission suggested (paragraph 368) that an early review of the level of remuneration would be called for, since they had deliberately refrained from making recommendations which might suggest that the Civil Service was in any way setting the pace or being in the van of a movement for a new approach to salaries for senior staffs.

PAY OF THE HIGHER CIVIL SERVICE

- (b) Where there has been a general settlement applicable to the lower and middle grades of the Service. The Royal Commission said (paragraph 184) that it was not appropriate that the Higher Civil Service should be included in such a settlement; but they assumed that, when such a settlement was reached, the fact would be reported to the Committee, who would examine what, if anything, should be done for the Higher Civil Service in consequence.
- (c) When a claim has been put forward by a Staff Association on the pay of a grade within the Committee's sphere, and it has proved impossible to reach a satisfactory solution (paragraph 387). In paragraphs 388-89 of its report, the Commission said that minor issues of remuneration on which agreement had not been reached, should not be referred to the Committee, but should, unless there were good reasons to the contrary, be allowed to go to arbitration by consent. They added that, if genuine and serious doubt arose over whether an issue was major or minor, the Committee might possibly be asked to decide the point of interpretation.

INSTITUTE NEWS

Annual General Meeting and Dinner

THE Institute's Annual General Meeting, held at County Hall on 26th April, was preceded by an address by Mr. T. J. Jones, O.B.E., Chairman of the Executive Council and Chief Officer of Supplies, London County Council, on *Public Administration in New York City*. Mr. Jones described the area administered by the City of New York and the salient methods of administration employed by the City Council. He then dealt in some detail with the investigation undertaken by the Mayor's Committee on Administrative Management, the Executive Director of which was Dr. Luther Gulick. This enquiry had resulted in the appointment of a City Administrator and for a time Dr. Gulick had occupied the post. In conclusion, Mr. Jones remarked on the scale of the task undertaken by the Mayor's Committee and paid tribute to the energy with which it had been carried through.

Following the Annual General Meeting, an Institute Dinner was held in the Members' Dining Room at County Hall and was attended by about 70 members and guests. This dinner, the first of its kind, was greatly enjoyed by those who were present, and it seems probable that a gathering of this kind will become an annual event.

Mr. Edwards elected Honorary Life Member

At the Annual General Meeting, Mr. A. J. C. Edwards, C.I.E., was elected Honorary Treasurer for the twentieth year in succession and, following his election, the Chairman announced that the Executive Council had unanimously decided to elect Mr. Edwards an Honorary Life Member of the Institute as a token of their esteem for the most valuable service he had rendered to it over many years. Mr. Edwards expressed his very great pleasure at the unexpected honour which had been conferred on him, and the Meeting applauded the Executive Council's decision.

New Chairman and Vice-Chairman of Executive Council

MR. S. G. WILLIAMS, O.B.E., Controller of Administration in the B.B.C.'s Television Service, has been elected Chairman of the Executive Council in succession to Mr. T. J. Jones. Mr. Williams, who has been with the B.B.C. for 26 years, is also a Director of the British Commonwealth Film Corporation. In 1947 he visited Singapore in connection with the establishment of a broadcasting organisation there, and a year or two ago undertook a similar mission to Nigeria.

Mr. R. C. J. Kenrick, who has been elected Vice-Chairman, is now in the Hospitals and Specialist Services Division of the Ministry of Health and was previously Management Side Secretary of the Ancillary Staffs Council, one of the Whitley Councils for the Health Services. As many members will recall, Mr. Kenrick was Honorary Secretary of the Institute from 1945 to 1950.

About Members

MR. D. G. DODDS, who until recently was Chairman of the Cardiff Regional Group, has left South Wales following his appointment as Chief Industrial Relations Officer in Central Electricity Authority. Mr. G. M. Stephens, Chairman of the Birmingham Regional Group, recently left on secondment to the Electricity Corporation of Nigeria for four months.

Dr. A. H. Marshall, C.B.E., City Treasurer of Coventry, recently visited the West Indies to attend a Conference organised for British territories in the Caribbean, to promote the development of local government there.

Kenneth Frere, who was Secretary of the Bristol Regional Group for a time and winner of the Haldane Essay Competition in 1952, has been appointed Recruitment and Training Officer, Research Group, Atomic Energy Authority, Harwell.

Mr. S. E. Raymond, who was Assistant Manpower Adviser to the British Transport Commission and was co-opted to the Executive Council last year, has been appointed Chief Commercial Manager for the Scottish Region of British Railways.

Institute Publication

The Organisation of British Central Government 1914-1956 was published in June. This is the report of the first major group research project undertaken since the war by the Institute. The group was formed in 1952 and since then it has conducted, under the chairmanship of Mr. D. N. Chester, C.B.E., a detailed survey of the changes which have taken place in all the major branches of Central Government. The report, which runs to 420 pages, was edited by Mr. Chester and written by Mr. F. M. G. Willson. The price is 32s. (25s. to members post free).

News from the Edinburgh Group

THE Peebles Hydro Hotel, high on the bank of the River Tweed, provided an ideal centre for the Conference organised by the Edinburgh and East of Scotland Regional Group on "Child Care—Working Together," and the arrangements were of the high standard now expected of the Honorary Officers of this Group.

The Conference papers, the main points of discussion and the inspired introduction of Sir Basil Henriques are to be published shortly. The most significant feature of the Conference was the sincerity and obvious dedication to the care of children shown by speakers from the many statutory and voluntary bodies represented at the Conference and concerned with the lives of deprived children. One felt that not only were the material needs given to these children, but also that their social and spiritual requirements were appreciated and that all present really wished to work well together for these ends.

The Group propose to follow up this Conference with a series of lectures in Edinburgh next autumn, entirely devoted to the training and functions of the social worker, in which speakers from the Social Studies Department of the University of Edinburgh will play a leading part.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Ministry of Works

By SIR HAROLD EMMERSON. George Allen and Unwin Ltd. for Royal Institute of Public Administration, 1956. Pp. 171. 15s. (11s. 6d. to Members of the Institute ordering from it direct).

ALTHOUGH I have had the advantage, first as a Ministry of Health official and, later, as an employee of a building employers' federation, of working closely with the Ministry of Works since its inception as the Ministry of Works and Buildings, I had not fully appreciated the wide scope and variety of the Department's functions until I read this book in the *New Whitehall Series* by one who was its Permanent Secretary for ten years.

It will, I hope, be widely read and I commend it, in particular, to any, whether they are members of the general public or employed in other Government Departments, who may still have any doubts about the continued existence of the Ministry of Works as a first-class Department. And the book will, I am sure, be of great help not only to new recruits to the Ministry, including Ministers who change more frequently than their permanent advisers, but to those already in the Department who would not otherwise be able readily to get a bird's-eye view of its varied activities.

No better author could have been chosen for the task than Sir Harold Emmerson, who came to the Ministry after spending the greater part of his career at the Ministry of Labour to which he has recently returned as permanent Head. If a change is as good as a rest, he must have found it very pleasant after dealing with problems of manpower and industrial disputes to turn occasionally to such subjects as the Royal Parks, public buildings and works of art. He was fortunate in two widely different respects. First, because by the time he arrived at the Ministry the dust of the many conflicts which had raged regarding the functions of the Department had largely settled down and he could, therefore, concentrate on its organisation on a peace-time basis; and secondly, because he was able to play

an important part in perfecting the arrangements which were made for the Coronation in 1953.

As regards the conflict over functions, I have always thought that housing and town and country planning should be dealt with by one Department, preferably that responsible for local government, and that it was therefore wrong to transfer one without the other either to the Ministry of Works, or, as happened later, to a separate Department. I welcomed, therefore, the decision to return town and country planning to its original home, now known as the Ministry of Housing and Local Government. There is, of course, much to support the view that one Department should be responsible for all building matters, but as there are many more good reasons why one Department should be responsible for all the building work carried out directly on behalf of the Government, it is unfortunate that recent decisions by the Government, e.g., in connection with atomic power, have not been in favour of increasing the Ministry's powers.

The Ministry has been of great help to the building industry largely because it has recognised that co-operation is a two-way street and because it has increasingly shown that its policy is to encourage, and not to supplant, activities which the industry itself should undertake. This policy may not have produced either spectacular or speedy results, but progress has been sure and solid. That the Department has gained the confidence of the industry is clear from the fact that the industry regards the Minister, when difficulties arise owing to the policies of his colleagues, e.g., petrol rationing, as their ambassador at the 10 Downing Street Court.

STANLEY HEARDER

The Victoria History of Wiltshire: Vol. V

Published by the Oxford University Press for the University of London Institute of Historical Research, 1957. Pp. xxi+383. £5 5s. 0d.

THE Victoria History of the Counties of England was founded in 1899, and is designed to cover every county of England. So far 118 volumes have been published, some of them dealing with general topics such as economic and ecclesiastical history, many of them dealing topographically with each parish, hundred by hundred, in the county.

Though the same general pattern is observed for each county, the details vary, as does the number of volumes. This fifth volume of the Wiltshire series is a deviation from the normal course: in other counties there has been a chapter called "political history"; this is here expanded into a separate volume, covering the parliamentary history of the county and its local government from the eleventh century to the present day, ending with specialised chapters on public health and education.

The decision to publish a separate volume for these subjects is amply justified. Under the skilled editorship of R. B. Pugh and Miss Elizabeth Crittall it has emerged as a work of real scholarship and great value. Administrative histories of a number of municipal boroughs have been published before now, such as Lady Simon's *Century of City Government* (Manchester) and Brian White's *History of the Corporation of Liverpool*; a number of records societies and county councils have published extensive collections of extracts from the muniments and records of their counties, but there has not before been a comparable history of the administration of a county as such. Yet a number of such studies are necessary for a true understanding of the history of local government; for this can only be built up, bit by bit, from the experience and records of individual towns and counties.

To the student of public administration the most interesting chapters of this book are probably those which cover the government of the county since 1660, by W. R. Ward and R. A. Lewis. They describe the growth of Quarter Sessions as an administrative body, employing salaried officers and appointing committees to deal with its expanding functions. Wiltshire was peculiar in having no fixed abode of Quarter Sessions; they met by rotation

in Salisbury, Devizes, Warminster and Marlborough, with occasional visits to Trowbridge. This system survived up to and beyond the creation of the County Council in 1888, and as it entailed four separate Chairmen administration must have been cumbersome and slow. The establishment of the County Council inevitably meant some administrative improvements, but it entailed but little change in membership. Half the new Council were also Justices of the Peace, and the aristocratic tradition was unbroken; the 4th Marquis of Bath, Chairman of Salisbury and Warminster Sessions, became Chairman of the County Council. His son held the same office for forty years, from 1906 to 1946, and was also Chairman of the County Quarter Sessions for 23 years. It would be interesting to know something more of the personal influence and ascendancy of such a man. Despite the levelling legislation of the nineteenth century, such aristocratic county potentates continued to rule in many counties, and do still rule in some today. There are no equivalent figures in the government of the towns, nor elsewhere in the field of public administration. To understand the government of the County one needs to know more of how these men have worked, of their relations with the committees and with the permanent officials. Of these officials, too, one would like to know more; what manner of men they were, and how they carried out their duties.

This volume is so good that one hopes that it may be a precedent for other counties. It would be invaluable to have a series of such studies of the growth of county government. If this were to happen one would not wish that such future volumes would differ much in form and method from this Wiltshire precedent. It might, however, be possible to extend the scope in one way; this volume treats county government as being too nearly synonymous with Quarter Sessions and the County Councils. Very little is said of turnpike trusts, improvement commissioners, vestries, and the many other minor governing bodies of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, or even of the

Guardians, and the Urban and Rural District Councils. How did they work? Who were the dominant figures in their deliberations? How much or little did they achieve? Some of their records are scattered or lost, and it would be laborious and difficult to piece their stories together; but yet they are an essential part of the government of the county. In many ways they must have affected the common people of the county more intimately and regularly than the deliberations of the comparatively remote Quarter Sessions and County Council. Some of these bodies will no doubt be described in the later topographical volumes, dealing with individual parishes; the first of these volumes (Vol. III) has already been published, and it includes a short account of the Trowbridge vestry and pavement commissioners. But other authorities, such as turnpike trusts, will not fit into the parochial pattern. Future volumes, dealing with the government of other counties, might be better still if they dealt not only with the Quarter Sessions and County Council but also with these minor administrative bodies, which are here either omitted or described too briefly.

The chapters devoted to Parliamentary history are naturally very different in nature. The parliamentary history of a county or a borough is not an easy theme, for the play is being acted on the stage of

Westminster; the county historian is standing in the wings, recording only the entrances and exits of the actors, not what they do when they are on the stage. He may describe what sort of people they are, and how they behave behind the scenes, but the play is acted elsewhere. Wiltshire however was rich in such actors; for, beside the two County Members, there were, before 1832, sixteen boroughs each returning two members—a total of thirty-four seats. (Today there are five.) The nature of their constituencies, and the way in which these were lost and won, are admirably shown. One sees in the eighteenth century the decline in power of the local gentry, as the influence of the peerage increases; then the growth of powerful party organisation, superseding the great boroughmongers, and the development of the Labour Party. These influences, and the type of men which they produced, are clearly described, particularly in the early period; but when they come to the last few decades the authors are, perhaps, too cautious, and give a more matter-of-fact statement of events which conveys less of the character of the men or the influences which affected them and the electors.

The Oxford University Press has maintained in full its high tradition of book production. In print, in illustrations and in format this volume is a delight.

B. KEITH-LUCAS

Candidates in a Municipal Election

By G. W. FENN. University College of Leicester, 1956. Pp. 32. 1s. 6d.

THIS monograph is a study of the candidates in the County Borough of Leicester election for May, 1956. It examines various attributes of the candidates—their sex, marital status, age, education, religion, occupation, length of residence, and previous experience in local elections. The material is sub-divided under the headings of the main political parties. The information was obtained from interviews with candidates by extra-mural students at Vaughan College of the University College of Leicester, and was analysed, tabulated, and written up by Mr. Fenn who conceived the scheme.

Undoubtedly this is a field about which we know far too little. The academic is irritated by the oft repeated criticisms of

the professional practitioner that "councillors are not what they were." It is as impossible to refute as to substantiate, as no information exists about "what they really were." Whilst this study does not help in this respect it will be of value to the future student in providing some evidence of the nature of election candidates in Leicester in 1956. Unfortunately, the sample is small, the deductions put forward cannot be justified by it, and the work itself is far less comprehensive and useful than it might have been.

The total number of vacancies was sixteen, the total of candidates thirty-three. Consequently, how can we decide that a candidate's (p. 32) "chances are likely to be improved if he has a wife and

BOOK REVIEWS

children"? The figures show that one out of two bachelors were successful as compared with fifteen out of thirty-one married men, but that fourteen out of twenty-seven parents were successful.

Figures like this cannot be used as the basis of such a conclusion. The only assumption which might be made is that nothing succeeds like success because, of the sixteen elected, fifteen had been councillors before; whilst only one was elected out of the other sixteen candidates with no council experience.

In short, this study gives us a picture of what the candidates looked like in Leicester in the year 1956, but we cannot deduce that because a person had these characteristics, he would *therefore* be successful. We read that he is generally a family man (there was only one woman successful), aged 40-50, predominantly elementary education having Church of England leanings, a man who has lived probably twenty years in Leicester, who has sat on the council before—in fact an ordinary type of Leicester male. The description would not necessarily apply in 1957, nor to the neighbouring city

of Coventry.

It was tantalising not to be able to go a little farther. How did this description of the ordinary councillor elected in 1956 marry up with those aldermen and councillors—48 of them already elected? How did the candidates in 1956 compare with those who have offered themselves since 1945? Whilst from its nature such a study must be geographically restricted, there is little reason why it should be so restricted temporally. Then what is the explanation of only five of the sixteen Conservative candidates having had a secondary education? Has there been an exodus of nearly all educated and active Conservatives from the city?

Vaughan College is to be congratulated for producing this booklet and Mr. Fenn on showing some of the possibilities of such field work by the mature extra-mural student. It is to be hoped that other colleges and departments may promote like studies. The results when aggregated might well be significant, but even failing that, they would still have historical importance.

HENRY MADDICK

A Source Book and History of Administrative Law in Scotland

Edited by M. R. McLARTY, assisted by G. CAMPBELL, H. PATON. William Hodge, 1956. Pp. viii+267. 21s.

THE first duty of a mere Sassenach in reviewing this book is to assure his fellow countrymen that it does not deal with any of those topics which are usually indicated, south of the Border, by the term "Administrative Law." Nor does "Source Book" exactly fit the contents, if the latter term conjures up the vision of a collection of basic documents. An Englishman editing this volume would probably have chosen something like *Background to Scottish Administration* as a title. Here is a collection of nineteen short, descriptive essays, each containing the main historical features of, and the principal legislation affecting, a governmental institution or service existing in Scotland today. Each chapter has a useful short bibliography, and there is a very adequate index. The subjects dealt with are: Burghal and Rural Administration; the Office of Secretary of State; the U.K. Departments in

Scotland; the Lord Advocate and the Crown Office; Registration; Sheriff and Justice of the Peace; Agriculture and Forestry; Buildings and Dean of Guild (the Dean of Guild Court is principally concerned to regulate and control building operations "within the burgh so as to prevent obstruction to or encroachment upon public or private rights, and to safeguard and promote public health and public safety and prevent obstruction to streets"); Education; Fisheries; Health; Housing and Town Planning; Lunacy; Poor, Welfare and Social Services; Roads, Ferries and Bridges; Valuation; Water; and Finance.

The volume is intended to provide a "compact historical introduction" to the different branches of "Administrative Law" as studied in Scotland, and thereby to remedy the lack, hitherto, of a basic text book. No one could quarrel with

that intention. Indeed, it is passing strange that a society so closely-knit, with so insistent a desire during the last half century to have more say in its own affairs, and with so fine a tradition of scholarship, has only now produced a book containing the basic data about its governmental organisation. We now await a critical study to put alongside Professor Mansergh's *Government of Northern Ireland* and the essays on *Ulster under Home Rule* edited by Mr. Thomas Wilson.

The contents of a symposium almost inevitably vary in quality, and when those contents are almost devoid of critical matter they cannot always be expected to yield lively reading. None the less there is plenty of workmanlike writing, and the reader unfamiliar with the details of Scottish administrative development will often be struck by the interesting contrasts with English experience. Sir Patrick Laird's chapters on "The Office of Secretary of State" and on "Agriculture

and Forestry" are polished contributions, and Professor Ferguson writes vividly on vagrancy and the early history of the Poor Law. There are two errors in Chapter IV: the Ministries of National Insurance and Civil Aviation were set up in 1944 and 1945, and not in 1946 and 1949, respectively. It is, of course, only just to point out that those events were outside Scottish control!

A "Source Book" does not, perhaps, demand an introduction, but a thumbnail sketch of the whole of Scottish constitutional and administrative development would greatly help the newcomer by enabling him to see where the pieces fit. The Editor tells us that: "Any profits from the sale of the book will be used towards financing further impressions." Would he not try his hand, next time, at an opening essay to pull together the valuable work of his contributors?

F. M. G. WILLSON

State Intervention and Assistance in Collective Bargaining: The Canadian Experience 1943-54

By H. A. LOGAN. University of Toronto Press, Oxford University Press, 1956.
Pp. vii + 176. 24s.

DR. LOGAN, who is already known for his *Trade Unions in Canada*, has here set himself the task of describing the origins and present-day working of federal and (some) provincial government intervention in Canadian industrial relations. This he performs efficiently if rather narrowly. Outside Canada, the book will be useful primarily to fellow specialists in industrial relations, and possibly to some students of government, who may be interested in the sidelights thrown on the working of the federal constitution.

About two-thirds of the book is divided into ten chapters, and the notes to those chapters gathered at the end. The constitutional background is first outlined, together with a short account of earlier legislation, and the pre-1939 industrial relations situation. Next two chapters discuss the wartime legislation, and examine it in action, while the following two deal with the Industrial Relations and Disputes Investigation Act, 1948, and the ways in which it differed from the wartime legislation. Three chapters deal with the positions in the provinces of Ontario and

Quebec, followed by an evaluation of the effects of the various enactments between 1943-44 and 1952, and finally a critical consideration of what Dr. Logan calls "significant issues," or how the legislation might be improved.

The remainder of the book is devoted to three appendices, giving the text of the two major pieces of legislation (the Wartime Labour Relations Regulations, P.C. 1003, of 1944, and the 1948 Act) and summaries of a dozen recent cases showing interpretations of the legislation by various of the Labour Relations Boards.

Many of the facts revealed or conclusions reached by Dr. Logan are what might reasonably have been expected. For example, fifteen out of twenty strike votes conducted by the Department of Labour favoured striking: all five others were in small concerns (p. 12). Almost invariably unions chose not to prosecute employers failing to carry out obligations (p. 67, etc). Conciliation councils set up by the State seem uncertain whether they should merely help the parties to reach an accommodation based solely on the balance of power

BOOK REVIEWS

between them, or rely on some view of the "public interest," or on ideas of justice (p. 100).

On the other hand, unlike Great Britain, surprisingly little use is made of the power of public opinion on the parties, a fact which Dr. Logan criticises (p. 96). Similarly we have escaped political domination of the industrial relations machinery in the way it is pictured in Quebec since about 1948, with retrospective legislation, and improper intervention by the provincial government (pp. 69-72).

The first eight chapters are inevitably full of facts, including an appreciable quantity of statistics and discussion of clauses of the relevant provincial and federal legislation. This does not make for easy reading. The last two chapters, devoted to the more general consideration

and conclusions, including some of the author's own opinions, are of wider interest.

What Dr. Logan has done, he has done thoroughly, and it is perhaps unfair to say that one might have liked consideration of the value of the system as a whole, as well as of its detailed working, and far more comparisons with other countries, including any other influences on the Canadian legislation apart from the Wagner Act. But the consequence is that, outside Canada, this book is likely to be mainly a source of raw materials for writers willing to make wider generalisations than Dr. Logan here allows himself.

The index is not entirely adequate: strike votes, the labour court (of Ontario), and employee representation are left out, while the Notes appear to be partly indexed.

R. C. ADAMS

From School Board to Local Authority

By ERIC EAGLESHAM. Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1956. Pp. ix+220. 24s.

PROFESSOR EAGLESHAM has filled a very real gap with his detailed, clear and scholarly account of the growing friction and confusion between the Education Department, the Local Government Board, the Science and Art Department, the School Boards and the County Councils in the years between the 1870 Education Act and the Act of 1902. He has been fortunate in having access to Ministry of Education files hitherto unavailable to research workers, and is able to publish for the first time certain documents which should, perhaps, have been accessible earlier, notably several trenchant memoranda by Morant, the one man who had a thorough grasp of the history and causes of confusion, and of the solution required.

As a result of Professor Eaglesham's researches, we are now in a far better position to assess the real significance of certain events, especially the Cockerton Judgement, and of certain personalities, especially Gorst and Morant, in educational history. It is now abundantly clear that the Judgement "served mainly to provide a convenient smoke-screen to cover changes which were politically desirable rather than legally necessary." In other words, it was brought about by Gorst and Morant, subsequently backed by Balfour, because they had come to the

conclusion that the only way out of the muddle was the creation of all-purpose Local Authorities based on the Counties and County Boroughs. It was, I believe, their intention from the start to include County Boroughs as Education Authorities, so that Professor Eaglesham's numerous references to County Councils (see p. 179) are rather misleading. It was not the original intention to include the Part III Authorities, but Balfour and Morant accepted this compromise with reluctance in order to get the 1902 Bill through. Subsequent history has, of course, pronounced in favour of their original plan.

Professor Eaglesham started his study as a critic of the School Boards, but his final judgement is that "a systematic and extensive development of the *ad hoc* principle might in the long run have provided a sounder system of local educational administration than that of the 1902 Act" (Preface). His main reason for this conclusion appears to be the intrusion of party politics into local government today. This is, of course, a conclusion which challenges the recent development of local government in England to its very roots, and its validity therefore needs careful scrutiny.

To begin with, the author's own

researches make it clearer than ever before that the School Boards tended to be politically progressive. London, especially, assumed a liberal-cum-socialist complexion. The friction between such Boards and a Conservative Administration became more and more political. What evidence is there that an extension of the *ad hoc* principle would have prevented the entry of politics into education, assuming that the *ad hoc* bodies were entirely subject to popular election? Of course the author may have in mind the model of a present-day Regional Hospital Board, or a County Agricultural Executive Committee, where popular election is eliminated and appointments are made by a Minister. Such a set-up for education, especially technical education, might reduce the influence of politics, and might present other administrative advantages. But one reader, at least, feels that Professor Eaglesham jumps to a very sweeping conclusion which needs much more detailed argument than is provided in his book. In particular, one would have to consider the enormous advantages educational administration has derived from its association with other branches of local government, and from the co-operation between Education, Clerks', Medical, Treasurers', Librarians', Architects', Transport and other Departments. Indeed, it is difficult to see how local government could have survived at all from a multitude of unco-ordinated *ad hoc* bodies.

One other conclusion must be examined. The author blames those responsible for policy in the critical years leading up to the 1902 Act for damaging and retarding the development of Further Education (both vocational and recreational), and of Secondary Schools other than Grammar Schools. It is very clear from his own account that Evening Classes under the School Boards suffered from the usual defects of any system dependent on government grants based on student

enrolments in individual subjects. In this case grant was available from two government departments, and classes organised by the County Councils and the technical instruction committees in towns were running in open competition with classes under the School Boards. Relatively few students at School Board classes made as many as 12 attendances in a session. The problem then was to establish really worth-while courses, to set standards, to encourage serious work, and to introduce a more liberal element into the technical instruction given at Evening Schools.

Morant did not hesitate to embark on such a policy in his much-criticised Minute of 1901, which stipulated that a student must attend at least 14 hours in a session to qualify for grant, and that not more than two of the four subjects that could be studied should be from the scientific, manual or technical groups. Professor Eaglesham is not able to give figures to estimate the damage allegedly done to technical and recreational classes, because the Board published only numbers of students qualifying for grant, instead of average attendances. But even today administrators would hesitate to place too much reliance on average attendance figures in assessing the true value of the work of an institution. It seems a little unrealistic to criticise Morant in 1956 for :

- (a) Stressing *quality* in Further Education rather than numbers ;
- (b) Trying to introduce a liberal element into Junior and Senior courses.

Finally, we must remember that Morant was as unconcerned about such labels as Grammar, Technical and Modern as was the Education Act of 1944. He wanted good Secondary Schools, and he was anxious to devolve the detailed running of them to strong Local Authorities. History has not yet proved him to have been wrong.

JOHN LEESE

Les Services de la Fonction Publique dans le Monde

By J.-J. RIBAS. Obtainable from the Royal Institute of Public Administration, 1956. Pp. 168. 16s.

THIS book has been published by the International Institute of Administrative Sciences in furtherance of its aim of spreading the facts about administrative institutions and practices. It deals with

something which no two countries handle in quite the same way—how to organise the task of regulating the recruitment and conditions of service of people working under governmental authority, with parti-

BOOK REVIEWS

cular reference to special bodies (e.g., civil service commissions) or central groups of officials with a responsibility for personnel problems that are common to government departments.

As many as 45 countries are named and, although the arrangements in only about half of them get more than a cursory mention, this will show the difficulties the author had to contend with in attempting to give a picture of what is done. Neither he nor the Institute would claim that the information given will be sufficient to enable anyone to decide what are the best practices but the hope is that it will lead enquirers to countries which are likely to provide a useful field for further research. Only so can the student guard against false comparisons based on superficial knowledge. A case in point is the question whether the oversight of civil service matters is better placed in a special organisation attached to the Prime Minister's office, as in France, than centred in the finance ministry. The present outline touches on this, but it needs a closer examination, as for example one made a few years ago by the former head of the French Civil Service Division,* to bring out that the British Treasury is so different from the Ministry of Finance in Paris as to afford no solid basis of comparison.

The author has exercised much ingenuity in his layout but it has the defect of not presenting the arrangements of any one country as a whole. The grouping of the United Kingdom with countries with civil service commissions tends to play down the importance of the Treasury. A good point is the warning that there is no common understanding of what constitutes the civil service: in France, for example, it takes in the teaching profession and in some countries people working in nationalised industries are subject to the same régimes as officials in the ministries.

There is a useful account of what is done about staff consultation, including such interesting facts as that (to apply our own idiom) in France an Official Side nominee takes the chair at meetings of the Staff Side of the National Whitley Council and that in Belgium the civil servant is compelled to vote at elections of Staff Side representatives. A blemish in this

part of the book is that, having mentioned the years 1927-47 as a period when the right of association was limited, the author leaves the impression that the British civil servant is still not free to join a staff association with trade union affiliations.

A description of the Civil Service Commission in Pakistan brings out that the examinations there go out more for a good standard of general education than for competence in vocational subjects, a point not made with enough force as regards the United Kingdom. Most of the 34 candidates from the universities who succeeded in the 1956 Administrative Class examinations had been engaged in courses of study that were unlikely to give them any knowledge of the subject matter of their future work. All but eight of the 34 had been at Oxford or Cambridge. This last point serves to illustrate a common misconception which the book reflects: the author says that there has been a widening of the social origins of our senior civil servants, who used to be "recrutés pour la grande majorité parmi les anciens élèves d'Oxford et de Cambridge." The implication is that these universities are the preserve of the well-to-do and that democratic recruitment through the Open Competitions must be measured by the intake from other universities. But about four out of five undergraduates at Oxford and Cambridge are there on scholarships. Consider an analysis of candidates for the Administrative Class in 1953.† Of the 52 who succeeded (26 of them from Oxford and 15 from Cambridge), 23 came from middle-class, 17 from lower-middle-class, and 12 from working-class homes; and of this last group, seven were educated at Oxford or Cambridge and eight had first-class honours degrees.

It is not to be wondered at if a reviewer can find something to criticise in the way his own country's arrangements are described in a short study with so wide a scope. What is remarkable is the wealth of information this book contains: the use of work analysts and the establishment of an interdepartmental staff suggestions scheme in the Netherlands; the joint facilities for higher staff training shared by

*Roger Grégoire: *La Fonction Publique*. (Reviewed in PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, Winter, 1954, p. 450.)

†See a chapter contributed by Sir Laurence Helsby, First Civil Service Commissioner, to *The Civil Service in Britain and France*, edited by Professor W. A. Robson (Hogarth Press, 1956).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

five Central American republics under United Nations auspices; and the progress of the French National School of Administration, from which 100 *administrateurs civils* pass out each year, including a number of promotees from the lower grades who, on passing a preliminary examination, are given four months' special leave with pay to prepare themselves for the main competition—these are samples from this compendium of establishment activities as they are unfolding

throughout the world. The impression as a whole is of countries at various stages of movement away from haphazard conditions of employment for their officials and towards the goal of a civil service which, if not uniform from department to department, is based on common principles consistently applied. In the last decade much good work has been done in this direction and the International Institute is entitled to some of the credit for it.

T. D. KINGDOM

Local Expenditure and Exchequer Grants

Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, 1956. Pp. 352. 42s.

THIS valuable new contribution to the study of local finance, and of central/local financial relations in particular, is the work of an I.M.T.A. study group of five Treasurers with an economist (Dr. D. S. Lees) in the chair. To review it adequately would require a full-length article, it is so full of material and points for discussion. I propose, therefore, to pick out one or two highlights.

The general theme of the Report is that there is not very much wrong with the present system of grants. The Exchequer Equalisation Grant needs tidying up and changing at one or two points which would lead to "a fairer distribution of the grant." One of these would have a bearing on the education grant and there is an interesting suggestion for amending the formula for this grant. They defend the "percentage" grant most vigorously. It is no longer true to say that percentage grants enable rich Authorities to take greater advantage than the poor Authorities of the Treasury's money. It is not true that percentage grants lead to excessive "detailed central control." In contrast the Committee are very much against those who would like to see an extension of "unit" grants whether for specific or general purposes. They produce a great array of figures to show that costs per unit vary between Authorities for reasons not within each Council's control. They therefore see the percentage grant and the E.E.G. as the main features in any grant system. All this is explained and supported by a mass of data and argument, which will convince many.

Much as I enjoyed the argument, I for

one am still not wholly convinced. True the book is a very useful corrective to those who want to roll up most of the present grants into a very large grant distributed according to needs. Indeed, nobody can write about the reform of Exchequer grants in future without taking account of this work. There were, however, at least three points that worried me about the Report.

First, I am not yet convinced that one can ignore completely the effects of the abolition or reduction of derating or the provision of alternative sources of revenue. The Committee say that the arguments for alternative sources have been dealt with elsewhere and, therefore, need not concern them. But is this wholly true? Is not this Report dominated in its thinking by being obsessed with the poverty of all except a very few Authorities? Otherwise how can we account for their mathematical obsession with seeing that one Authority does not gain a few £s more than another? I am alarmed at the way Treasurers are increasingly watching each other to see that none gains a halfpenny advantage. In this Report there is table after table showing how this or that item costs slightly more or less in one area than in another. This is the obsession with poverty. If all Authorities had more revenue sources, would not some of this obsession disappear? Would not it be felt sufficient to ensure that justice was done to the obviously very poor Authorities without searching for perfect "fairness" for every Local Authority?

Second, even without an increase in the independent sources of local revenue, are not the Local Authorities' financial

BOOK REVIEWS

advisers in danger of forgetting that the primary purpose of most grants must be to ensure a fair contribution from the Exchequer towards the "national" services provided by Local Authorities? Equalisation is being elevated into the sole aim, even on occasion to the detriment of the Local Authorities. Thus some (not this Report) have criticised the alternative sources put forward by the R.I.P.A. Committee on the ground that they would help some areas more than others. But does this really matter so long as they help all Authorities and increase the resources of the poorest? One of these days we will find Treasurers advocating levying a higher rate in some county boroughs so that the proceeds can be paid to other county boroughs. In this direction lies madness and disaster. There is a little of this in this Report.

Finally, I suspect that one must look farther ahead either than this Report or than the present Government proposals. One has to ask what will be the look of local finance and the grant system in ten or so years' time. This must assume

a continuation of some inflation as the Treasury and the Government seem unable to avoid it. A system combining the E.E.G. and a series of specific percentage grants is more likely to stand up to such a trend than a system of "fixed" grants. But will not both systems be undermined by the inevitable increase in the proportion of total local expenditure financed by the Exchequer? And if this happens, what then of the pretty argument that this or that grant basis, indeed any grant basis, gives Local Authorities the necessary incentive to spend carefully and wisely. In these circumstances will not some of the discussion become increasingly academic?

Looking back I can see I have used this review to criticise the Government's general proposals rather than the authors of this Report. But some of my comment is not altogether inappropriate to them. Nevertheless the Report is one of the most important contributions to the subject in all the literature.

D. N. CHESTER

Perspectives on Administration

By DWIGHT WALDO. University of Alabama Press, 1956. Pp. 143. \$2.50

THE five chapters in this book were originally presented as lectures in the University of Alabama in the Southern Regional Training Programme in Public Administration. The theme is perspectives: How does administration fit into human enterprise? How does administration look to other disciplines? It is an interesting and ambitious theme, but Professor Waldo does not succeed. He does not get deeply enough into any one of his perspectives. Sometimes he merely mentions one book title after another. There seems to be a real danger that Professor Waldo will become a slave to his card index. As he reels off the references we are rather like the rustics in Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*: "Still they gaz'd and still the wonder grew, That one small head should carry all he knew." Is Professor Waldo really like

this or is he more like one of us? Now and again, for example, when he is talking about models which have been used to illustrate or develop administrative theory, he is interesting and stimulating. But when he fills the pages with the reference to this or that book he is as interesting as a bibliographer, but we are left to do not merely the reading but also the understanding. We would like Professor Waldo to write a book in which no author, other than Waldo, and no book title is mentioned. Not that we are not grateful to the guides to the current and classical literature of public administration, but we would like to see Professor Waldo stand up without the aid of all these sticks and make a rather "illiterate" attempt to deal with some aspect or issue in administration.

D. N. CHESTER

BOOK NOTES

The New Atomic Age

United Nations, H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 40. 1s. 9d.

A DESCRIPTION in non-technical language of the principles of harnessing atomic energy; of the uses to which it is being put in industry, medicine and agriculture; and of the arrangements being devised for international co-operation "to ensure the benefits and prevent the possible ills of this new technology." The readability of the booklet is enhanced by diagrams and other simple illustrations.

Metal Equipment for Office and Works Steel Office Furniture

Ancillary Machines and Equipment for Shops, Offices and Works

Mail Room Equipment

THESE are Parts 18-21 of the comprehensive *Manual of Modern Business Equipment* which Macdonald and Evans Ltd. are publishing for the Office Appliance and Business Equipment Trades Association.

Definitions of Value

Collected and annotated by H. HOWARD KARSLAKE. Rating and Valuation Association, 1957. Pp. 161. 25s.

IN this compilation are contained the statutory definitions of value relating to the ownership or occupation of land. Succeeding parts deal with the statutes relating to compulsory purchases, requisitioned land, estate duty, taxation, rating, landlord and tenant, agricultural holdings, and licensed premises. Where necessary the language of the Acts is elucidated by introductory notes and additional comments.

Socialist Digest

Published monthly by the Labour Party. 1s. per issue.

THE January, 1957, issue of this periodical includes, in the section on "Public Enterprise," a brief review of the progress of the electricity supply industry since nationalisation.

Medical Negligence

By LORD NATHAN with the collaboration of ANTHONY R. BARROWCLOUGH. Butterworth, 1957. Pp. xxxii+218. 35s. (postage 1s. 3d. extra).

THIS book gives an account of the law of negligence in relation to the medical profession and hospitals. It is intended both for legal practitioners, for members of the medical and nursing professions, and for hospital administrators. The importance of the subject has been emphasised by the great increase since 1948 in legal actions against hospitals. Since this is a recent development in this country, however, it has proved necessary to supplement the reports of English cases by references to decisions of the courts in the Dominions and the United States.

Sexual Offences

Edited by L. RADZINOWICZ. Macmillan, 1957. Pp. xxvii+55. 63s.

THE Cambridge Department of Criminal Science has embodied in this report the results of its five-year enquiry into sexual offences. This enquiry was based on about a quarter of the known crimes occurring in fourteen police areas covering the London area, large industrial cities, seaports, suburbs, and country districts. The main section of the report is devoted to providing the factual background to 2,000 cases of conviction. There follows a comprehensive survey of the relevant substantive law and law of evidence, and a critical review of the major proposals for amendment of the existing provisions. In conclusion, memoranda from Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Belgium and the United States provide valuable comparative material.

Counterattack against Subtopia

Edited by IAN NAIRN. Architectural Press, 1957. Pp. 84. 12s. 6d.

THIS reprint from the December, 1956, special issue of the *Architectural Review* forms a sequel to *Outrage*. While the latter concentrated on exposing the way in which the land of Britain is being steadily

BOOK NOTES

defaced, its successor shows how positive action can be taken to prevent further despoliation and to mitigate the damage which has been already done to the urban and rural landscape.

Return of Fire Service Statistics, 1955-56

Return of Police Force Statistics, 1955-56

Education Statistics, 1955-56

Ambulance Service Statistics, 1955-56

THESE annual returns are prepared jointly by the I.M.T.A. and the Society of County Treasurers. All four are obtainable at the price of 3s. per copy (reduced prices for six or more copies).

Integration of Social with Technological Change

By THE EARL OF HALSBURY. Occasional Papers No. 11. Published by the Institute of Personnel Management, 1957. Pp. 11. 2s. 6d.

AFTER reflecting on Nedd Ludd and his objection to cut-up pantaloons being used in the manufacture of stockings a century ago, the author comes to the present days of full employment. The final pages of this brief paper can thus do little but mention that technological change has not been found to be the main cause of prolonged unemployment, and that there are gaps in our knowledge of career patterns, which should be remedied.

Addresses of this type, although no doubt excellent in a conference setting, rarely make worthwhile publications—this is no exception.

Industrial Training

By A. TEGLA DAVIES. Institute of Personnel Management, 1956. Pp. 39. 4s. 6d.

THIS booklet is an excellent summary. Few, if any, of its pages do not contain information of interest or value to newly-appointed training officers or executives anxious to initiate some form of suitable training within their organisation.

Governmental Services in the Philippines

By H. B. JACOBINI and Associates. University of the Philippines, 1956. Pp. ix+640. No price shown.

THE twelve contributors to this symposium give a comprehensive account of the various services performed by the Philippine government. An introductory chapter contains a useful historical sketch and other background information.

Theses in the Social Sciences

Unesco, H.M.S.O., 1954. Pp. 236. 10s. 6d.

THIS is a reprint of an analytical catalogue of the unpublished doctorate theses which were written between 1940 and 1950. The information was derived from surveys carried out, at the instance of Unesco, in 30 Member States, including the United Kingdom and the United States. The theses are classified by subject and by language.

Government Contracting in Atomic Energy

By R. A. TYBOUT. Michigan University Press and Oxford University Press, 1956. Pp. 226. 36s.

THE author examines the various kinds of contracts—fixed-price, variable-price, cost-plus-fixed-fee, etc.—used in the American atomic energy programme. This is an interesting and too little explored field of public administration. Unfortunately Professor Tybout does not explore it very thoroughly and seems mainly interested in showing that cost-plus-fixed-fee contracts represent a new form of relationship between government and private business.

In Their Early Twenties

By T. FERGUSON and J. CUNNISON. Oxford University Press, 1956. Pp. 110. 12s. 6d.

THIS book is a sequel to two earlier studies of Glasgow boys who left school in 1947 at the age of 14. It is a detailed study of nearly 600 of them between the ages of 20 and 22, including military service and subsequent readjustment, leisure interests and employment.

*National Conference on
Metropolitan Problems*

Government Affairs Foundation (New York), 1957. Pp. 100.

THESE are the papers and proceedings of a conference on the problems of very large cities held at Michigan State University in 1956.

New Housing Estates in Belfast

By D. E. FIELD and D. G. NEILL.
Queen's University of Belfast. Pp. 84.
3s.

BASED on a one-in-ten sample of the tenants of Belfast municipal estates, the survey deals with their expenditure, standard of living, attitudes towards house and estate, and social relationships.

Civil Service Posts for Graduates

H.M.S.O., 1956. Pp. 58. 2s. 6d.

AN extremely informative booklet prepared by the Civil Service Commission explaining the work of the Administrative Class, the Senior Branch of the Foreign Service and certain other classes recruited mainly from university graduates.

Friendship's Harvest

By VIOLET MARKHAM. C. H. Reinhardt.
Pp. 227. 25s.

IN this very readable book, Miss Markham puts on record in biographical form her memories of some of the well-known men and women among her host of friends. Two will be of particular interest to readers of this *Journal*: the glimpses of Lord Haldane, his sister Elizabeth, and their mother, and the full-length account

of Sir Robert Morant. In the latter she defends Morant firmly and effectively against the criticisms and attacks of Mr. Michael Sadleir and Miss L. Grier. This chapter also includes some new material, particularly letters, about the later years of Morant's official life.

The Problem of "The Problem Family"

By N. F. PHELP and N. TIMMS. Family Service Units, 1957. Pp. 77. 7s. 6d.

THIS is a very useful critical review of the literature concerning the problem family and its treatment. The bibliography lists 154 articles, reports and books.

*The Clerk of the Council
The Medical Officer of Health*

Filmstrips No. 2 and 3 in *The Local Government Officer Series*. N.A.L.G.O. in collaboration with Education Productions Ltd. 15s. each.

THESE film strips are an excellent introduction to the work of these departments. The notes issued with the film strips describe the various frames and cover most of the more spectacular aspects of the work of these chief officers.

One's first inclination would be to assume that these strips are particularly suitable for older school children, but on examination it becomes evident that the general public, if they knew only of these aspects of the work of local officials, would be taking more interest than the average elector in local affairs. Local government is dependent for any success on the participation of an informed public and the N.A.L.G.O. Public Relations Officer has done well to produce these film strips.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

The following official publications issued by H.M.S.O. are of particular interest to those engaged in, or studying, public administration. The documents are available in the Library of the Institute.

AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENT COUNCIL FOR ENGLAND AND WALES

Third report, 1950-56. pp. vi, 37. 1956 2s. 6d.

AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES AND FOOD, MINISTRY OF

Agricultural statistics, 1955-56. United Kingdom agricultural censuses and production. pp. vi, 36. 1957. 3s.

BOARD OF TRADE

The Commonwealth and the sterling area. Statistical abstract No. 76. 1955. pp. v, 334. 1956. 17s. 6d.

CENTRAL STATISTICAL OFFICE

Standard industrial classification. pp. 33. 1948. 2s.

A reprint of the guide which was originally prepared "as a means of securing uniformity and comparability in the statistics published by Government Departments in the United Kingdom."

CENTRAL YOUTH EMPLOYMENT EXECUTIVE

Choice of Careers New Series, No. 31—The Civil Service: openings for juniors. pp. 36. Illus. 1956. 1s. 9d.

CIVIL APPROPRIATION ACCOUNTS

Classes I-IV, 1955-56. H.C. 23. pp. xiv, 321. 1956. 13s. 6d.

CIVIL ESTIMATES AND ESTIMATES FOR REVENUE DEPARTMENTS

Supplementary estimate, 1956-57. H.C. 71. pp. 223. 1957. 8s. 6d.

COLONIAL OFFICE

Annual report on the East Africa High Commission, 1955. Colonial No. 326. pp. ii, 81. Map, illus. 1956. 5s. 6d.

Colonial research, 1955-56. Reports of the various bodies. Cmnd. 52. pp. 312. 1956. 10s.

Colonial Research Publications, No. 18—Report on roads and road problems in South East Asia and the Caribbean (by F. H. P. Williams). pp. vii, 88. Figs., folding charts, 48 plates. 1957. 13s.

Constitutional proposals for Cyprus. Report submitted to the Secretary of State for the Colonies by the Right Hon. Lord Radcliffe, G.B.E. Cmnd. 42. pp. 47. 1956. 2s.

Constitution makes no provision for change in international status of Cyprus. Cyprus will be governed by two law-making authorities; Governor to have full law-making and executive power in his own field. Turkish Cypriot voters to have 6 seats in Legislative Assembly.

Nigeria. Tribunal of inquiry appointed by warrant of appointment, 4th August, 1956. Report of the tribunal appointed to inquire into allegations reflecting on the conduct of the Premier of, and certain persons holding ministerial and other public offices in, the Eastern Region of Nigeria. Cmnd. 51. pp. viii, 65. 1957. 3s.

The proposed constitution of Ghana. Cmnd. 71. pp. 11. 1957. 8d.

Ghana "to be an independent State within the Commonwealth with the Queen as Sovereign and with a Cabinet and Parliamentary system of government of the same general type as is found in the United Kingdom and other independent Commonwealth countries."

Report of the British Caribbean Federal Capital Commission. Colonial No. 328. pp. 48. Folding map. 1956. 3s.

COMMITTEE OF PRIVILEGES

First report together with the proceedings of the Committee and the minutes of evidence. Session 1956-57. H.C. 27. pp. vi, 6. 1956. 1s.

Second report, Session 1956-57. Complaint (17th December) of a passage in the *Sunday Express* newspaper of the 16th December, 1956. H.C. 38. pp. viii, 9. 1956. 1s. 9d.

Third report, Session 1956-57. Complaint (18th December) of a drawing and text in the *Evening News* newspaper of that day. H.C. 39. pp. iv, 3. 1956. 9d.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Fourth report together with the proceedings of the Committee and the minutes of evidence, Session 1956-57. H.C. 74. pp. vi. 1957. 6d.

COMMITTEE OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTS

Fourth, fifth and sixth reports and special report from the Committee. H.C. 204-1, 238-1, 282-1, 348-1. pp. xx, 598. 1956. 30s.

Index to the fourth, fifth, sixth and special reports from the Committee and to the further evidence, 1955-56. H.C. 348-Ind. pp. 19. 1956. 1s. 9d.

Special report. Treasury Minute and Abstract of Appropriation Accounts. Session 1956-57. H.C. 75. pp. 20. 1957. 1s.

COMMONWEALTH AGRICULTURAL BUREAUX

Twenty-seventh annual report of the Executive Council, 1955-56. pp. 33. 1956. 5s.

COMMONWEALTH ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

Annual report covering period 1st April, 1955, to 31st March, 1956. pp. 10. 1956. 9d.

COMMONWEALTH RELATIONS OFFICE

The Commonwealth Relations Office List, 1957. An official year book. pp. 276. 6th ed. 1957. 21s.

A very useful reference book on the Commonwealth. Lists Commonwealth Ministers and those organisations in the U.K. concerned with various aspects of Commonwealth relations, gives notes on constitutional development of certain Commonwealth countries, etc.

CORONA

November, 1956, to February, 1957. Monthly. 1s. 6d.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR SCOTLAND

Housing return for Scotland, 31st December, 1956. Cmnd. 66. pp. 15. 1957. 1s.

National Health Service, Scotland. Analysis of running costs of hospitals for the year ended 31st March, 1956. pp. iv, 64. 1956. 10s. 6d.

National Health Service Superannuation Scheme (Scotland): an explanation. Revised 1956. pp. 27. 1956. 1s.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

Notes on D.S.I.R. grants for graduate students and research workers. pp. 20. Revised January, 1957. 1s. 3d.

DIGEST OF COLONIAL STATISTICS

November-December, 1956; January-February, 1957. 6s. each issue.

ECONOMIC TRENDS

November, December, 1956; January, February, 1957. 2s. monthly.

EDUCATION, MINISTRY OF

The health of the school child. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education for the years 1954 and 1955. pp. 187. 4 plates. 1956. 6s.

Ministry of Education Pamphlet 31—Health education. pp. viii, 183. 1956. 4s.

Report of an enquiry into the working of the school meals service (1955-56). pp. v, 17. 1s. 3d.

Many reasons exist why children do not make fuller use of service—poor food, parents' preference for children to lunch at home, "faddy" children, cost, etc.

Training colleges in England and Wales recognised by the Minister. pp. 34. 1956. 1s. 6d.

Science Museum. Hand-list of short titles of current periodicals in the Science Library. pp. iv, 426. 8th ed. 1956. 12s. 6d.

FOREIGN OFFICE

European Coal and Steel Community Treaty series No. 51 (1956). Agreement concerning the relations between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the European Coal and Steel Community (and connected documents). Cmnd. 13. pp. 39. 1956. 1s. 9d.

Miscellaneous No. 14 (1956). Report on the proceedings of the seventh Ordinary Session of the Consultative Assembly of the Council of Europe including the Joint Meeting with the Common Assembly of the European Coal and Steel Community, Strasbourg, 5th-9th July and 14th-27th October, 1955. Cmnd. 26. pp. 115. 1956. 5s.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

FORESTRY COMMISSION

Thirty-sixth annual report of the Forestry Commissioners for the year ended 30th September, 1955. H.C. 341. pp. 89. Tabs., illus. 1956. 4s. 6d.

FUEL AND POWER, MINISTRY OF

Proposals for the reorganisation of the electricity supply industry. Cmnd. 27. pp. 3. 1956. 4d.

GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE

The Registrar General's decennial supplement, England and Wales, 1951. Life tables. pp. 34. Folding tabs. 1957. 3s.

Statistical review of England and Wales for the year 1955. Part I, tables, medical. pp. x, 372. 1956. 12s. 6d.

Estimates of the population of England and Wales. Population of each administrative area at 30th June, 1956. pp. 16. 1957. 9d.

GENERAL REGISTER OFFICE OF SCOTLAND

Annual report of the Registrar-General for Scotland, 1955. No. 101. pp. 488. Folding map. 1956. 16s.

HEALTH, MINISTRY OF

National Health Service hospital costing returns for year ended 31st March, 1956. Part I—Regional hospital boards and hospital management committees in England and Wales. Part II—Boards of governors of teaching hospitals in England and Wales. Part III—Summary of hospital costs for the years 1952, 1954, 1956. pp. 137. 1956. 21s.

National Health Service Superannuation Scheme (England and Wales): An explanation. Revised 1956. pp. ii, 25. 1s.

Report for the year ended 31st December, 1955. Part II—On the state of the public health. Cmnd. 16. pp. vi, 264. Tabs., 1 folding. 1956. 9s.

HOME OFFICE

Annual report of the Council of the Central After-care Association, 1955. pp. iv, 31. 1956. 1s.

The Council for Wales and Monmouthshire. Third memorandum on its activities. Cmnd. 53. pp. 178. 1957. 6s.

Report of the Commissioners of Prisons for the year 1955. Cmnd. 10. pp. vi, 203. 1956. 7s.

Report of the Committee on horticultural marketing. Cmnd. 61. pp. iv, 182. 1957. 6s.

Some recommendations: that a London Markets Authority be set up to deal with necessary improvements in marketing and distribution at the London markets (such improvements would mean better value for the consumer and better prices for the growers); that existing markets be improved; that the volume of trade now concentrated at Covent Garden be distributed amongst the markets at Brentford and Stratford.

HOME OFFICE AND MINISTRY FOR WELSH AFFAIRS

Wales and Monmouthshire. Report of government action for the year ended 30th June, 1956. Cmd. 9887. pp. iii, 55. Illus. 1956. 3s. 6d.

HOUSE OF COMMONS

Standing Committees. Return for session 1955-56. H.C. 429. pp. 13. 1956. 9d.

Standing orders, 1956. H.C. 422. pp. x, 310. 1956. 11s. 6d.

Supplementary estimate. Ministry of Defence. Estimate of the further sum required to be voted for the year ending 31st March, 1957: £1,650,000. H.C. 46. pp. 5. 1957. 8d.

Trading accounts and balance sheets 1955-56. H.C. 18. pp. vi, 167. 1956. 7s. 6d.

HOUSING AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT, MINISTRY OF

Clean Air Act, 1956. Memorandum on miscellaneous provisions. pp. 11. 1956. 8d.

Clean Air Act, 1956. Memorandum on smoke control areas. pp. 25. 1956. 1s. 3d.

Housing return for England and Wales. 31st December, 1956. Appendix. pp. 78. Cmnd. 65. 3s.

Housing return for England and Wales. 31st December, 1956. Cmnd. 65. pp. 7. 1957. 6d.

Housing summary, 31st October, 1956. Cmnd. 28. pp. 2. 1956. 3d.

Moving from the slums. Seventh report of the Housing Management Sub-Committee of the Central Housing Advisory Committee. pp. iii, 24. 1956. 1s. 9d.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Rent Control. Statistical information. Cmnd. 17. pp. 3. 1956. 4d.

IMPERIAL WAR GRAVES COMMISSION

Thirty-seventh annual report—1st April, 1955, to 31st March, 1956. pp. 61. Fronts., 23 plates. 1957. 2s. 6d.

INLAND REVENUE

Ninety-ninth report of the Commissioners of H.M. Inland Revenue for the year ended 31st March, 1956. Cmnd. 54. pp. 156. Folding tab. 1957. 8s. 6d.

IRON AND STEEL HOLDING AND REALISATION AGENCY

Report and statement of accounts for the period 1st October, 1955, to 30th September, 1956. H.C. 41. pp. 63. 1957. 3s.

JOURNAL OF AFRICAN ADMINISTRATION

Monthly. 2s. 6d. per number.

LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE, MINISTRY OF

Annual report of the Chief Inspector of factories for the year 1955. Cmnd. 8. pp. 275. 1956. 9s.

Central Youth Employment Executive. The work of the Youth Employment Service, 1953-56. A report by the National Youth Employment Council. pp. vi, 38. 1956. 2s. 6d.

Industrial Court Awards No. 2630. London County Council: administrative, professional, technical and clerical staff salaries—claim for increase. pp. 17. 1957. 1s. 6d.

International Labour Conference, 39th session, Geneva, 6th-28th June, 1956. Report by the delegates of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Cmnd. 36. pp. 42. 1956. 2s. 3d.

LORD CHANCELLOR'S OFFICE

Law Reform Committee. Fifth report (conditions and exceptions in insurance policies). Cmnd. 62. pp. 7. 1957. 6d.

MONOPOLIES AND RESTRICTIVE PRACTICES COMMISSION

Report on the supply of electronic valves and cathode ray tubes. H.C. 16. pp. 194. 1956. 7s.

Report on the supply of certain industrial and medical gases. H.C. 13. pp. viii, 143. 1956. 6s.

Report on the supply of oxygen, dissolved acetylene and propane in the U.K. Principal sources of evidence include Air Ministry, Board of Trade, British Oxygen Co. Ltd., Esso Petroleum Co. Ltd., etc., etc.

Report on the supply of standard metal windows and doors. H.C. 14. pp. vi, 112. 1956. 5s.

Report on the supply of tea. H.C. 15. pp. iii, 69. 1956. 3s. 6d.

MONTHLY DIGEST OF STATISTICS

November, December, 1956, and January, 1957. 4s. 6d. each issue.

NATIONAL LAND FUND

Account of the National Land Fund for the year ended 31st March, 1956 (in continuation of H.C. 44, 1955-56). H.C. 357. pp. 5. 1956. 6d.

NATURE CONSERVANCY

Report of the Nature Conservancy for the year ended 30th September, 1956. H.C. 1. pp. v, 82. 12 plates. 1956. 4s. 6d.

OVERSEA EDUCATION

Quarterly, 2s. each issue.

OVERSEAS RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT ACTS, 1948 to 1956

Account, 1955-56. H.C. 76. pp. 7. 1957. 6d.

PENSIONS AND NATIONAL INSURANCE, MINISTRY OF

Report of the National Insurance Advisory Committee on the death grant question. Cmnd. 33. pp. 32. 1956. 1s. 6d.

POST OFFICE

Broadcasting: copy of an agreement dated 1st February, 1957, between the Postmaster-General and the British Broadcasting Corporation, supplemental to a licence and agreement made the 12th June, 1952, between the parties. Cmnd. 80. pp. 4. 1957. 6d.

Commercial accounts, 1955-56. H.C. 26. pp. 53. 1956. 3s. 6d.

Report of the Committee of Inquiry into

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Welsh Broadcasting, 1956. Cmnd. 39. pp. ii, 42. 1956. 2s. 3d.

PRIVY COUNCIL

Medical Research Council Special Report, Series No. 292—A study of attitudes to factory work. Compiled by S. Wyatt and R. Marriott. pp. vii, 115. Bibliog. 1956. 10s.

Investigation to ascertain the nature, extent and causes of satisfaction and of discontent among men employed on mass-production methods in factories with similar types of work but different managements policies.

REVENUE DEPARTMENTS

Appropriation accounts, 1955-56. H.C. 6. pp. x, 31. 1956. 2s. 6d.

ROYAL MINT

Eighty-sixth Annual Report of the Deputy Master and Comptroller for the year 1955. pp. v, 89. 6 plates. 1956. 5s.

SCIENTIFIC POLICY, ADVISORY COUNCIL ON

Ninth annual report, 1955-56. Cmnd. 11. pp. iv, 12. 1956. 9d.

SCOTTISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Abstract of the accounts of education authorities and managers of grant-aided educational establishments for the year 1953-54. Report by the accountant appointed under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1946. pp. 30. 1956. 1s. 9d.

SCOTTISH HOSPITAL ENDOWMENTS RESEARCH TRUST

First report—12th January, 1954, to 31st July, 1955. H.C. 37. pp. 17. 1956. 1s. 3d.

SELECT COMMITTEE

Report from the Select Committee on the Naval Discipline Act. H.C. 421. pp. cxxxii, 420. 1956. 25s.

Navy requires wider scheme of summary jurisdiction than other services, because of its mobility; naval discipline must be equally strict in peacetime and in war. Present code of naval discipline derives from Articles of War passed in 1661. Committee has had to consider how Act can be altered to suit modern conditions.

SELECT COMMITTEE ON ESTIMATES, SESSION 1955-56

Minutes of the proceedings of the Select Committee on Estimates. H.C. 427. pp. 15. 1956. 9d.

First report—Her Majesty's Stationery Office. H.C. 33. pp. xiv, 201. 1956. 10s. 6d.

Second report—The supply of military aircraft. H.C. 34. pp. xxxviii, 306. 1956. 16s.

Third report—Stores and ordnance depots of the service departments. H.C. 60. pp. xxxii, 266. 1957. 13s. 6d.

Special report. Observations of the Treasury and the Minister of Transport and Civil Aviation on the first report of the Select Committee on Estimates in session 1955-56 (on civil aerodromes and ground services). H.C. 35. pp. 19. 1956. 1s. 3d.

STATE MANAGEMENT DISTRICTS

Annual report for the year ended 31st March, 1956. H.C. 3. pp. 7. 1956. 6d.

STATIONERY OFFICE

British Imperial Calendar and Civil Service List, 1957. pp. xiii, 1003. 1957. £1 1s.

International organisations' publications, 1955. Supplement to the Stationery Office Catalogue. pp. 1231-1266, xiv. 1956. 6d.

TRANSPORT AND CIVIL AVIATION, MINISTRY OF

London Airport central terminal buildings. pp. 46. Illus., folding plans. 2nd ed. 1955. 5s.

Parking survey of inner London. Interim report, September, 1956. pp. 35. Folding maps in pocket. 1956. £1.

Deals with the proposed parking scheme—installation of parking meters, enforcement of meter system, etc.

Public road passenger transport statistics, Great Britain, 1955-56. pp. 19. 1956. 1s.

TRANSPORT TRIBUNAL

The British Transport Commission (Railway Merchandise) charges scheme, 1957. pp. 19. 1s.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

TREASURY

The Colombo Plan for co-operative economic development in South and South-East Asia. Fifth annual report of the Consultative Committee. Cmnd. 50. pp. 154. 1957. 5s. 6d.

Customs and Excise: forty-seventh report of the Commissioners for the year ended 31st March, 1956. Cmnd. 69. pp. 192. 7s. 6d.

A European free trade area. United Kingdom memorandum to the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation. Cmnd. 72. pp. 8. 1957. 6d.

Finance accounts of the United Kingdom for the financial year 1955-56. H.C. 303. pp. 78. 1956. 4s. 6d.

National debt. Return for each of the years 1938-39 to 1955-56. Cmnd. 48. pp. 29. 1957. 2s.

Public boards. List of members of public boards of a commercial character as at 1st November, 1956. Cmnd. 43. pp. 19. 1956. 1s.

Staff employed in government departments. Cmnd. 25. p. 1. 1956. 4d.

UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMITTEE

Methods used by universities for contracting and for recording and controlling expenditure. Cmnd. 9. pp. 44. 1956. 2s.

WAR OFFICE

Report of the Committee on the Employment of National Servicemen in the United Kingdom. Cmnd. 35. pp. 27. 1956. 1s. 3d.

Committee composed of three impartial observers examined all aspects of the use of National Servicemen, following widespread feeling that National Service manpower was being wasted. Recommendations of report include courses of training for commanding officers and staffs of training units, explanations of his allocation to a particular arm, greater "civilianisation" of the National Serviceman, etc.

WELSH LAND SETTLEMENT SOCIETY LIMITED

Co-operative farms and smallholdings with centralised services in Wales. Report and accounts for the year 1955-56. pp. 36. 1956. 3s. 6d.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

President :

THE RT. HON. VISCOUNT WAVERLEY,
P.C., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., F.R.S.

Vice-Presidents :

SIR FREDERICK ALBAN, C.B.E., J.P.
EMERITUS PROFESSOR F. A. BLAND, M.A., LL.B., M.P.
THE RT. HON. LORD BRIDGES, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.V.O., M.C.
SIR ERIC COATES, C.S.I., C.I.E.
DR. L. C. HILL, C.B.E.
THE RT. HON. LORD HURCOMB, G.C.B., K.B.E.
SIR JOHN IMRIE, C.B.E., J.P.
SIR PATRICK LAIRD, K.B.E., C.B., F.R.S.E.
SIR JAMES LYTHGOE, C.B.E., M.A.
SIR JOHN MAUD, G.C.B., C.B.E.
THE RT. HON. HERBERT MORRISON, C.H., M.P.
O. A. RADLEY, C.B.E., M.C.
SIR HOWARD ROBERTS, C.B.E., D.L.
SIR HENRY SELF, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., K.B.E.
DAME EVELYN SHARP, D.B.E.

Chairman, Executive Council :

S. G. WILLIAMS, O.B.E.

Vice-Chairman, Executive Council :

R. C. J. KENRICK

Hon. Treasurer : A. J. C. EDWARDS, C.I.E.

Assistant Hon. Treasurer : C. A. FRENCH

Hon. Editor "Public Administration" : D. N. CHESTER, C.B.E., M.A.

Director : RAYMOND NOTTAGE

The Royal Institute of Public Administration, which was founded in 1922, is a trust. It is a non-political body whose objects are to advance the study of public administration and to promote the exchange of information and ideas on all aspects of the subject. It issues publications, arranges conferences and lectures, undertakes research and has developed a reference library. Membership terms for individuals and for corporate bodies may be obtained from the Director at :

HALDANE HOUSE
76A NEW CAVENDISH STREET, LONDON, W.1
LANGHAM 8881

THE ORGANIZATION OF BRITISH CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

1914-1956

*A Survey by a Study Group of
The Royal Institute of Public Administration*

**EDITED BY D. N. CHESTER
WRITTEN BY F. M. G. WILLSON**

The structure of British Government has changed radically since the beginning of the First World War. Starting with the general pattern of departments during the period, this book deals in turn with each of the major fields of governmental action—finance, trade and industry; law, justice and public order; social services; external affairs; defence; and scientific research. Then follow chapters on the information and other common services, on the evolution of the Cabinet and its Committees and other high-level methods of co-ordination. Finally, there is an analysis of the changes in the distribution of functions between departments and a discussion of the Machinery of Government problems which are constantly arising.

This is the first full account of the developments and changes in a most important period of British government. As such it is both a landmark and the basis for an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the present structure.

32s.

25s. to R.I.P.A. members ordering direct from the Institute

GEORGE ALLEN AND UNWIN LTD
40 MUSEUM STREET, LONDON, W.C.1

